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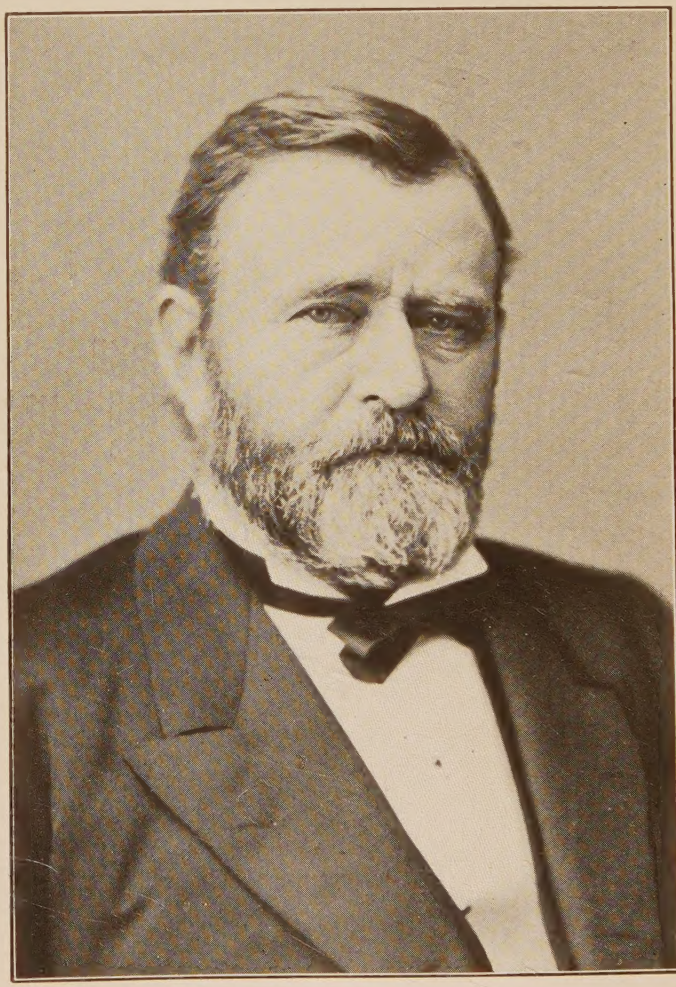

U. S. Grant

The Pittsburgh Gazette

EDITION

HARPER'S ENCYCLOPÆDIA of UNITED STATES HISTORY

FROM 458 A.D. TO 1905

BASED UPON THE PLAN OF

BENSON JOHN LOSSING, LL.D.

SPECIAL CONTRIBUTIONS COVERING EVERY PHASE OF AMERICAN HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT BY EMINENT AUTHORITIES, INCLUDING

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THE AMERICAN HISTORIAN

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ETC., ETC., ETC., ETC.

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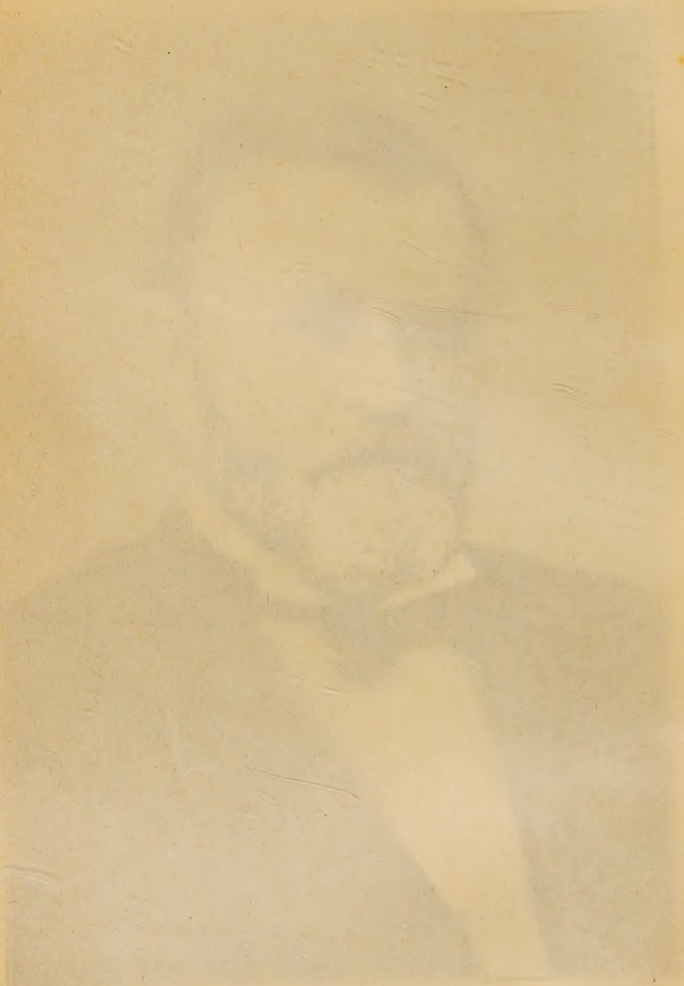
COMPLETE IN TEN VOLUMES

VOL. IV

HARPER & BROTHERS PUBLISHERS
NEW YORK 1906 LONDON



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HARPER'S ENCYCLOPÆDIA

OF

UNITED STATES HISTORY

G.

Gabriel's Insurrection (1800). Thomas Prosser, of Richmond, Va., owned a slave called "Jack Bowler," or "General Gabriel," who fomented an insurrection among the slaves, with the intention of murdering the inhabitants of Richmond. The militia was ordered out; the ringleaders were captured and punished.

Gadsden, CHRISTOPHER, patriot; born in Charleston, S. C., in 1724; was educated in England; became a merchant in Charleston, and a sturdy champion of the rights of the colonies. He was a delegate to the Stamp Act Congress, and ever advocated openly republican principles. He was also a member of the first Continental Congress. Chosen a colonel in 1775, he was active in the defence of Charleston in 1776, when he was made a brigadier-general. He was active in civil affairs, and was one of the many civilians made prisoners by Sir Henry Clinton and carried to St. Augustine. He was exchanged in 1781 and carried to Philadelphia. In 1782 he was elected governor of his State, but declined on account of infirmity. He died in Charleston, S. C., Aug. 28, 1805. See ST. AUGUSTINE.

Gadsden, JAMES, statesman; born in Charleston, S. C., May 15, 1788; graduated at Yale College in 1806. During the War of 1812 his service was marked with distinction, and when peace was concluded he became aide to General Jackson in the expedition to investigate the military defences of the Gulf of Mexico and the southwestern frontier. In 1818 he participated in the Seminole War. Later he went with Jackson to Pensacola, when the latter took possession of Florida, and was the first white man to cross that peninsula from the Atlantic to the Gulf. In 1853 he was minister to Mexico, and on Dec. 10 of that year negotiated a treaty by which a new boundary was made between the United States and Mexico. He died in Charleston, S. C., Dec. 25, 1858.

Gadsden Purchase, the name applied to the land bought from Mexico in 1853, because its transfer was negotiated by Gen. James Gadsden, who was United States minister to Mexico when the purchase was made. It includes a strip of land extending from Rio Grande del Norte, near El Paso, westward about 500 miles to the Colorado and the border of Lower California, and from the Gila River to the border fixed by the treaty. Its greatest breadth is 120 miles; area, 45,535 square miles; cost, $10,000,000.

Gag-rule. Adopted by Congress on motion of John C. Calhoun in January, 1836, providing that all anti-slavery petitions be laid on the table unnoticed. It was abolished Dec. 3, 1844.

Gage, LYMAN JUDSON, financier; born in De Ruyter, Madison co., N. Y., June 28, 1836; was educated at the Academy in Rome, N. Y.; entered the Oneida Central Bank when seventeen years old, remaining there till 1855, when he removed to Chicago. In 1868 he was made cashier, in 1882 vice-president, and

in 1891 president of the First National Bank of Chicago. He was the first president of the board of directors of the

LYMAN JUDSON GAGE.

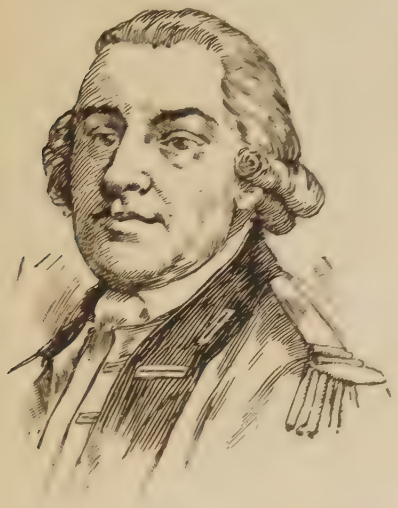
World's Columbian Exposition; served three times as president of the American Bankers' Association; first president of the Chicago Bankers' Club; and twice president of the Civil Federation of Chicago. In 1897–1902, he was Secretary of the United States Treasury. See EMBARGO ACTS.

Gage, MATILDA JOSLYN, social reformer; born in Cicero, N. Y., March 24, 1826; was an active writer and speaker on behalf of woman's suffrage and the abolition of slavery. In 1872 she was elected president of the National Woman's Suffrage Association. In connection with SUSAN B. ANTHONY (*q. v.*) and ELIZABETH CADY STANTON (*q. v.*) she wrote *The History of Woman Suffrage*, and independently *Woman as an Inventor*. She died in Chicago, Ill., March 18, 1898.

Gage, THOMAS, military officer; born in England about 1721; was second son of Viscount Gage; entered the army in his youth; was with Braddock at his defeat on the Monongahela, when he was lieutenant-colonel; and led the advance. In that hot encounter he was wounded. Late in 1758 he married a daughter of Peter Kemble, president of the council of New Jersey. Gage served under Amherst in northern New York and Canada, and on the capture of Montreal by the English in 1760 he was made military governor of that city. He was promoted to major-general, and in 1763 succeeded Amherst as commander-in-chief of the British forces in North America. In 1774 he succeeded Hutchinson as governor of Massachusetts, and occupied Boston with troops, much to the annoyance and irritation of the inhabitants. Acting under instructions from his government rather than in accordance with his conscience and judgment, he took measures which brought on armed resistance to British rule in the colonies. When his demand for 20,000 armed men at Boston was received by the ministry they laughed in derision, believing that a few soldiers could accomplish all that was necessary to make the patriots cower.

Lord Dartmouth wrote to Gage, in the King's name, that the disturbers of the peace in Boston appeared to him like a rude rabble "without a plan, without concert, and without conduct," and thought a small force would be able to encounter them. He instructed him that the first step to be taken towards the re-establishment of government would be to arrest and imprison the principal actors and abettors in the Provincial Congress, whose proceedings appeared like rebellion and treason. He suggested that the measure must be kept a secret until the moment of execution. "If it cannot be accomplished," said Dartmouth, "without bloodshed, and should be a signal for hostilities, I must again repeat, that any efforts of the people, unprepared to encounter with a regular force, cannot be very formidable." This was written only a few weeks before the affairs at Lexington and Concord. Dartmouth continued, "The charter of Massachusetts empowers the governor to use and exercise the law martial in time of rebellion." It appears, from statements in official despatches, he believed there was an "actual and open

rebellion" in that province, and therefore the exercise of his powers named were justifiable. The movements of ministers were keenly watched. "Your chief de-



Tho.s Gage

pendence," wrote Franklin to Massachusetts, "must be on your own virtue and unanimity, which, under God, will bring you through all difficulties." Garnier, the French ambassador at London, wrote to Vergennes, "The minister must recede or lose America forever."

In his report of the battle of Bunker Hill, General Gage said to Lord Dartmouth, "The trials we have had show the rebels are not the despicable rabble too many have supposed them to be; and I find it owing to a military spirit encouraged among them for a few years past, joined with uncommon zeal and enthusiasm. They intrench and raise batteries—they have engineers. They have fortified all the heights and passes around this town (Boston), which it is not impossible for them to annoy. The conquest of this country is not easy; you have to cope with vast numbers. In all their wars against the French they never showed so much conduct, attention, and perseverance as they do now. I think it is my duty to let your lordship know the true situation of affairs." Franklin wrote to his English friends, "Americans will fight; England has lost her colonies forever."

Gage, performing no act of courage during the summer of 1775, while Washington was besieging Boston, endeavored to terrify the Americans and to keep up the spirits of his own soldiers by warning the former that thousands of veteran warriors were coming from Russia and the German principalities to crush the "unnatural rebellion." He vented his ill humor upon American prisoners in his hands, casting into prison officers of high rank, thinking thus to terrify the common soldiery, whose intelligence and courage he entirely underrated in reality, though praising them when it suited his purpose. Against this treatment Washington remonstrated; but Gage insolently scorned to promise "reciprocity with rebels," and replied: "Britons, ever pre-eminent in mercy, have overlooked the criminal in the captive; your prisoners, whose lives, by the laws of the land, are destined to the cord, have hitherto been treated with care and kindness—indiscriminately, it is true, for I acknowledge no rank that is not derived from the King." Washington remembered that Gage's want of presence of mind had lost the battle of the Monongahela and replied, in a dignified manner: "I shall not stoop to retort and invective. You affect sir, to despise all rank not derived from the same source as your own. I cannot conceive one more honorable than that which flows from the uncorrupted choice of a brave and free people, the purest source and original fountain of all power. Far from making it a plea for cruelty, a mind of true magnanimity would comprehend and respect it."

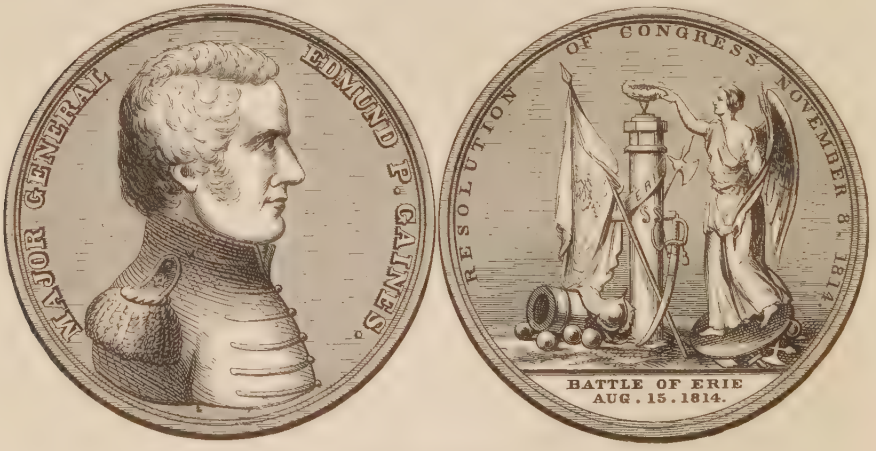
After the affairs at Lexington, Concord, and Bunker Hill, Gage was ungenerously held responsible for the blunders of the ministry, and resigned his command in October, 1775, when he was succeeded by Gen. William Howe as chief of the forces in America. He died in England, April 2, 1787.

Gaillardet, THEODORE FREDERIC, journalist; born in Auxerre, France, April 7, 1808; emigrated to the United States and established the *Courrier des États-Unis* in New York; took part in the Presidential canvass of 1872 on behalf of Horace Greeley. He is the author of *Profession de foi et considérations sur le système républicain des Etats-Unis*, and of a large number of communications on American subjects which appeared in the leading French newspapers. He died in Plessy-Bouchard, France, Aug. 12, 1882.

Gaine, HUGH, journalist; born in Ireland in 1726; emigrated to America and became a printer in New York City in 1750; established *The Mercury* in 1752, originally a Whig journal. After the capture of New York by the English, *The Mercury* was a strong advocate of the British. Upon the conclusion of the Revolutionary War he was permitted to remain in New York, but was obliged to give up the publication of his newspaper. He died in New York City, April 25, 1807.

EDMUND PENDLETON GAINES.

Gaines, EDMUND PENDLETON, military officer; born in Culpeper county, Va., March 20, 1777; removed with his family to Tennessee in 1790; entered the army as ensign in 1799; and was promoted to lieutenant-colonel in the summer of 1812. He rose to brigadier-general in March, 1814; and after his gallant conduct at Fort Erie in August, that year, he was brevetted major-general. For that exploit, and his general good services during the war, Congress gave him thanks and a gold medal. Gaines served under Jackson in the Creek War, and fought the Seminoles in 1836. Late in life he married Myra Clark, of New Orleans, heiress of a large estate, who, after his death, became famous for her successful persistence in litigation to secure her rights. He died in New Orleans, June 6, 1849.



GENERAL GAINES'S MEDAL.

Gaines, Fort. See Mobile; Morgan and Gaines, Forts.

Gaines, Myra Clark, claimant; wife of Edmund Pendleton Gaines; daughter of Daniel Clark, who was born in Sligo, Ireland, and emigrated to New Orleans, where Myra was born in 1805. Her father inherited a large estate from his uncle in 1799, and died in New Orleans, Aug. 16, 1813, devising all his property to his mother, Mary Clark. Myra married first W. W. Whitney in 1832, and on his death General Gaines in 1839. She claimed the estate of her father, who was reputed a bachelor at the time of his death, and after a litigation of over fifty years she succeeded in establishing her rights. She died in New Orleans, Jan. 9, 1885.

Gaines's Mill, Battle of. In June, 1862, General McClellan transferred his army from the Chickahominy and his stores from the Pamunkey to the James River. He ordered the stores and munitions of war to be sent to Savage's Station, and what could not be removed to be burned, and supplies to be sent to the James as speedily as possible. He also sent his wounded to the same station, and prepared to cross the Chickahominy for the flight with the right wing—a perilous undertaking, for Jackson and Ewell were prepared to fall on Porter's flank. This movement was so secretly and skilfully made, however, that Lee was not informed of the fact until twenty-four hours after it was actually begun on the morning of the 27th. The duty of protecting the stores in their removal was assigned to General Porter. His corps (the 5th) was also charged with the duty of carrying away the siege-guns and covering the army in its march to the James. These troops were accordingly arrayed on the rising ground near Gaines's Mills, on the arc of a circle between Cold Harbor and the Chickahominy, when they were attacked by a Confederate force, in the afternoon, led by Generals Longstreet and A. P. Hill. A few of the siege-guns were yet in position. Morell's division occupied the left, Sykes's regulars and Duryée's Zouaves the right, and McCall's division formed a second line, his left touching Butterfield's right. Seymour's brigade and horse-batteries commanded the rear, and cavalry under Gen. Philip St. George Cooke were on flanking service near the Chickahominy. The brunt of the battle first fell upon Sykes, who threw the assailants back in confusion with great loss. Longstreet pushed forward with his veterans to their relief, and was joined by Jackson and D. H. Hill. Ewell's division also came into action. The Confederate line, now in complete order, made a general advance. A very severe battle ensued.

Slocum's division was sent to Porter's aid by McClellan, making his entire force about 35,000. For hours the struggle along the whole line was fierce and persistent, and for a long time the issue was doubtful. At five o'clock Porter called for more aid, and McClellan sent him the brigades of Meagher and French, of Richardson's division. The Confederates were making desperate efforts to break the line of the Nationals, but for a long time it stood firm, though continually growing thinner. Finally a furious assault by Jackson and the divisions of Longstreet and Whiting was made upon Butterfield's brigade, which had long been fighting. It gave way and fell back, and with it several batteries. Then the whole line fell back. Porter called up all of his reserves and remaining artillery (about eighty guns), covered the retreat of his infantry, and checked the advance of the victors for a moment. Just then General Cooke, without orders, attacked the Confederate flank with his cavalry, which was repulsed and thrown into disorder. The horses, terrified by the tremendous roar of nearly 200 cannon and the rattle of thousands of muskets, rushed back through the Union batteries, giving the impression that it was a charge of Confederate cavalry. The artillerists recoiled, and Porter's whole force was pressed back to the river. While flying in fearful disorder, French and Meagher appeared, and gathering up the vast multitude of strugglers, checked the flight. Behind these the scattered brigades were speedily formed, while National batteries poured a destructive storm of shot and shell upon the head of the Confederate column. Seeing fresh troops on their front, and ignorant of their number, the Confederates fell back and rested upon the field they had won at a fearful cost. In this battle the Nationals

lost about 8,000 men, of whom 6,000 were killed or wounded. The loss of the Confederates was about 5,000. General Reynolds was made prisoner. Porter lost twenty-two siege-guns. During the night he withdrew to the right side of the Chickahominy, destroying the bridges behind him.

Gaither, HENRY, military officer; born in Maryland in 1751; was actively engaged throughout the Revolutionary War; served under General St. Clair in the campaign against the Miami Indians in 1791; and at one time was in command of Fort Adams and Fort Stoddart. He died in Georgetown, D. C., June 22, 1811.

Gale, LEVIN, lawyer; born in Cecil county, Md., in 1824; was admitted to the bar and began practice at Elkton, Md. He published *A List of English Statutes Supposed to be Applicable to the Several States of the Union.* He died in Baltimore, Md., April 28, 1875.

Gales, JOSEPH, journalist; born near Sheffield, England, April 10, 1786. His father emigrated to the United States in 1793, and established the *Independent Gazetteer* in Philadelphia, and in 1799 removed to Raleigh, N. C., where he established the *Register.* Joseph became a printer, and subsequently a partner of Samuel Harrison Smith, publisher of the *National Intelligencer,* in Washington, D. C., the successor of the *Independent Gazetteer.* In connection with William Winston Seaton he made the *Intelligencer* a daily newspaper. Both partners were efficient reporters, and to their interest and foresight is due the preservation of many important speeches, notably those of Webster and Hayne. Gales died in Washington, D. C., July 21, 1860.

Gallagher, WILLIAM DAVIS, journalist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Aug. 21, 1808; became a printer and eventually an editor; was connected with the *Backwoodsman* at Xenia; the Cincinnati *Mirror;* the *Western Literary Journal and Monthly Review; The Hesperian; Ohio State Journal,* and the Cincinnati *Gazette.* Among his writings are *A Journey Through Kentucky and Mississippi; The Progress and Resources of the Northwest.* He died in 1894.

Gallatin, ALBERT, financier; born in Geneva, Switzerland, Jan. 29, 1761; was a graduate of the University of Geneva. Both of his parents were of distinguished families, and died while he was an infant. Feeling great sympathy for the Americans

ALBERT GALLATIN.

struggling for liberty, he came to Massachusetts in 1780, entered the military service, and for a few months commanded the post at Passamaquoddy. At the close of the war he taught French in Harvard University. Having received his patrimonial estate in 1784, he invested it in land in western Virginia; and in 1786 he settled on land on the banks of the Monongahela, in Fayette county, Pa., which he had purchased, and became naturalized. Having served in the Pennsylvania State convention and in the legislature (1789 and 1790–92), he was chosen United States Senator in 1793, but was declared ineligible on the ground that he had not been a citizen of the United States the required nine years. He was instrumental in bringing about a peaceful termination of the "Whiskey Insurrection," and was elected a member of the House of Representatives in 1795. An active member of the Republican, or Democratic, party, he even went so far, in a speech in Congress (1796), as to charge Washington and Jay with having pusillanimously surrendered the honor of their country. This, from the lips of a young foreigner, exasperated the Federalists. He was a leader of the Democrats in the House, and directed his attention particularly to financial matters. Mr. Gallatin remained in Congress until 1801,

when President Jefferson appointed him Secretary of the Treasury, which office he held until 1813, and obtained the credit of being one of the best financiers of the age.

The opponents of Jefferson's administration complained vehemently, in 1808, that the country was threatened with direct taxation at a time when the sources of its wealth, by the orders and decrees of Great Britain and France, were drying up. Gallatin replied to these complaints by reproducing a flattering but delusive suggestion contained in his annual report the preceding year. He suggested that, as the United States were not likely to be involved in frequent wars, a revenue derived solely from duties on imports, even though liable to diminution during war, would yet amply suffice to pay off, during long intervals of peace, the expenses of such wars as might be undertaken. Should the United States become involved in war with both France and Great Britain, no internal taxes would be necessary to carry it on, nor any other financial expedient, beyond borrowing money and doubling the duties on imports. The scheme, afterwards tried, bore bitter fruit.

Gallatin's influence was felt in other departments of the government and in the politics of the country. Opposed to going to war with Great Britain in 1812, he exerted all his influence to avert it. In March, 1813, he was appointed one of the envoys to Russia to negotiate for the mediation of the Czar between the United States and Great Britain. He sailed for St. Petersburg, but the Senate, in special session, refused to ratify his appointment because he was Secretary of the Treasury. The attempt at mediation was unsuccessful. When, in January, 1814, Great Britain proposed a direct negotiation for peace, Gallatin, who was still abroad, was appointed one of the United States commissioners to negotiate. He resigned his Secretaryship. In 1815 he was appointed minister to France, where he remained until 1823. He refused a seat in the cabinet of Monroe on his return, and declined to be a candidate for Vice-President, to which the dominant Democratic party nominated him. President Adams appointed him minister to Great Britain, where he negotiated several important commercial conventions. Returning to the United States in 1827, he took up his residence in the city of New York. He was the chief founder (1842) and first president of the American Ethnological Society, and was president of the New York Historical Society from 1843 until his death, in Astoria, N. Y., Aug. 12, 1849. Although strictly in private life, Mr. Gallatin took special interest in the progress of the country.

Gallaudet, THOMAS HOPKINS, educator; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 10, 1787; graduated at Yale College in 1805, where he was a tutor for a while. At Andover Theological Seminary he prepared for the ministry, and was licensed to preach in 1814. Becoming interested in the deaf and dumb, he began his labors for their instruction in 1817, with a class of seven pupils. He became one of the most useful men of his time, labored incessantly for the benefit of the deaf and dumb, and was the founder of the first institution in America for their instruction. He was president of it until 1830, when he resigned. The asylum was located at Hartford, where Dr. Gallaudet became chaplain for the Connecticut Retreat for the Insane in 1833, which office he retained until his death, Sept. 9, 1851. Dr. Gallaudet published several works for the instruction of the young, besides other books. He was of Huguenot descent. His two sons, THOMAS and EDWARD MINER, also devoted their lives to the instruction of the deaf and dumb. The former, an Episcopal clergyman, was instrumental in organizing churches for the deaf and dumb; and the latter established in Washington, D. C., the National Deaf-Mute College, in 1864, of which he became president. THOMAS died Aug. 27, 1902.

Gallinger, JACOB H., legislator; born in Cornwall, Ont., March 28, 1837; was a printer; later studied medicine and practised till he became a member of Congress. He was a member of the New Hampshire legislature in 1872–73 and in 1891; of the State constitution convention in 1876; of the State Senate in 1878, 1879, and 1880, and its president in 1879 and 1880; member of Congress in 1885–89; and United States Senator in 1891–1909.

Gallitzin, PRINCE DEMETRIUS AUGUS-

TINE, clergyman; born in The Hague, Holland, Dec. 22, 1770, where his father was Russian ambassador. He belonged to one of the oldest and richest families among the Russian nobles. In 1792 he came to the United States for the purpose of travel, but determined to become a Roman Catholic priest. He entered the St. Sulpice Seminary in Baltimore, and was ordained a priest March 18, 1795, being the first priest who had both received holy orders and been ordained in the United States. He was sent on missions, but was recalled in consequence of his impetuosity and over-zeal. In 1799 he was appointed pastor at Maguire's settlement. He purchased 20,000 acres in the present Cambria county, Pa., which he divided into farms and offered to settlers on easy terms. Although constantly hampered by lack of money to carry out the grand schemes he contemplated, his colony took root and soon sent out branches. He had adopted the name of Schmettau, which was anglicized into Smith, but in 1811 he resumed his own name. He died in Loretto, Pa., May 6, 1841.

Galloway, JOSEPH, loyalist; born near West River, Anne Arundel co., Md., about 1730; was a member of the Pennsylvania Assembly in 1764, and at one time Speaker and, with Franklin, advocated a change of the government of Pennsylvania from the proprietary to the royal form. A member of the first Continental Congress, he was conservative in his views, yet his line of argument in his first debates tended towards political independence. He proposed a plan of colonial government, which was rejected. It contemplated a government with a president-general appointed by the King, and a grand council, chosen every three years by the colonial assemblies, who were to be authorized to act jointly with Parliament in the regulation of the affairs of the colonies. Parliament was to have superior authority, with a right to revise all acts of the grand council, which, in turn, was to have a negative in British statutes relating to the colonies. This plan was, at first, favorably considered by many in the Congress; but it was rejected, and not permitted to be entered on the minutes of the journal.

After the question of independence began to be seriously agitated, Galloway abandoned the Whig, or republican, cause, and was thenceforward an uncompromising Tory. When the British army evacuated Philadelphia, in 1778, he left his country, with his daughter, went to England, and never returned. He died in Watford, Hertfordshire, Aug. 29, 1803.

Gally, MERRITT, inventor; born near Rochester, N. Y., Aug. 15, 1838; learned the printer's trade; graduated at the University of Rochester in 1863, and at the Auburn Theological Seminary in 1866; was a Presbyterian minister for three years. In 1869 he founded a manufactory for the construction of the "Universal" printing-press, which he had shortly before designed. His patents aggregate more than 400, including the "Orchestrone," an automatic musical instrument; the back vent system, for tubular church organs; the counterpoise pneumatic system of the æolian, pianola, and other automatic musical instruments; a machine for making type from cold metal; differential telephone; etc.

Galveston, city, seaport, and commercial metropolis of Texas; on an island of the same name. It was settled in 1837; captured by National forces in 1862; retaken by Confederates in 1863; was nearly destroyed by fire in 1885; and was visited by a terrible tornado and flood, Sept. 8, 1900, which destroyed nearly 3,000 buildings, caused a loss of between 8,000 and 10,000 lives, and damaged property and trade to the extent of more than $45,000,000. To prevent a recurrence of the disaster the city constructed a sea-wall, 17,593 feet long, 16 feet wide at the base, 5 feet wide at the top, standing 17 feet above mean low tide, and having a riprap apron extending 27 feet out on the Gulf side. The wall was completed in July, 1904, and cost $1,198,118. The protective scheme also provided for the elevation of the grade of the city from one to fifteen feet, so that it will slope gradually from the top of the sea-wall. This work will cost $1,500,000 more. The foreign commerce of the port in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1904, was: Imports, $1,847,646; exports, $145,316,457; the manufactures in the census year 1900 aggregated in value $5,016,360; the assessed property valuation in 1903 was $20,574,098; and the net city debt, $2,747,541.

The population in 1890 was 29,084; in 1900, 37,789.

In the early part of the Civil War attempts were made to "repossess" important posts in Texas, especially Galveston. On May 17, 1862, Henry Eagle, in command of war-vessels in front of Galveston, demanded its surrender, under a threat of an attack from a large land and naval force that would soon appear. "When those forces appear," said the authorities, "we shall reply." So matters remained until Oct. 8, when Galveston was formally surrendered by its civil authorities to Commodore Renshaw, of the National navy. To hold the city more securely, a Massachusetts regiment, under Colonel Burrill, was sent there from New Orleans. In front of the city (Dec. 28) lay six National war-vessels, under the command of Renshaw. General Magruder, of the Confederate army, then in command of the Department of Texas, collected a land and naval force near Galveston, and before daylight on Jan. 2, 1863, he attacked the National forces by land and water. At first the men from Massachusetts repulsed those of Magruder, but, Confederate vessels coming up with a fresh supply, the National soldiers were overpowered. After a brief action, the *Harriet Lane* (one of the National vessels) was captured, and the *Westfield*, Renshaw's flag-ship, was blown up by his order, to prevent her falling into the hands of the Confederates. The firing of the magazine of the *Westfield* was done prematurely, by an intoxicated man, and Commodore Renshaw, a lieutenant, and an engineer, with about a dozen of her crew, perished by the explosion. Nearly as many officers and men were killed in a gig lying by the side of the *Westfield*. Magruder's victory was almost a barren one, for Farragut re-established the blockade before the *Harriet Lane* could be converted into a Confederate cruiser.

Galvez, Bernardo, military officer; born in Malaga, Spain, in 1755; became governor of Louisiana in 1776; secretly aided the Americans with military supplies and $70,000 in money in 1778. About the same time Spain's offer of mediation between the United States and Great Britain was declined, whereupon Spain declared war against Great Britain, June 16, 1779. Galvez, without waiting to be reinforced, marched north and took Fort Manchac, Baton Rouge, Fort Panmure and Fort Natchez. In February, 1780, he captured Mobile; and soon after invaded Florida, where he met with several successes. On May 9, 1781, he forced the surrender of Pensacola and gained control of the whole western coast of Florida. He died in the city of Mexico, Nov. 30, 1786. See Vasco da Gama.

Gamble, Hamilton Rowan, statesman; born in Winchester, Va., Nov. 29, 1798; admitted to the bar of Virginia in 1817; went to Missouri in 1818. In 1861 the State constitution convention appointed him provisional governor. He served in this office until his death in Jefferson City, Mo., Jan. 31, 1864.

Gamble, Robert Jackson, lawyer; born in Akron, N. Y., Feb. 7, 1851; was graduated at Lawrence University in 1874; admitted to the bar in 1875, and began practice in Yankton, Dak.; was a State Senator in 1885; a member of Congress in 1895–97 and in 1899–1902; and a United States Senator from South Dakota in 1901–07.

Gammell, William, educator; born in Medfield, Mass., Feb. 10, 1812; graduated at Brown University in 1831; became professor of history and political economy there in 1880. His publications include the lives of Roger Williams and Gov. Samuel Ward, in Sparks's *American Biographies*. He died in Providence, R. I., April 3, 1889.

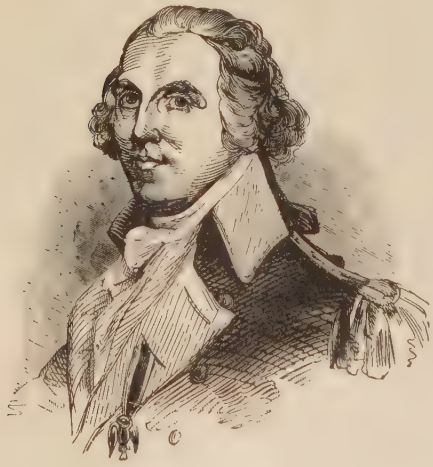
Gannett, Henry, scientist; born in Bath, Me., Aug. 24, 1846; graduated at Lawrence Scientific School in 1869; became connected with the United States Geological Survey in 1882. He is the author of *Statistical Outlines of the Tenth and Eleventh Censuses; Commercial Geography; Building of a Nation; United States;* and was employed on the 10th, 11th, and 12th Censuses, and on those of Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines.

Ganse, Hervey Doddridge, clergyman; born in Fishkill, N. Y., Feb. 7, 1822; graduated at Columbia University in 1839, and at the New Brunswick Theological Seminary in 1843; was ordained to the ministry of the Dutch Reformed Church. He was the author of *Bible Slave-holding not Sinful*, a reply to Dr.

Samuel B. How's *Slave-holding not Sinful.*

Gansevoort, HENRY SANDFORD, military officer; born in Albany, N. Y., Dec. 15, 1835; grandson of Gen. Peter Gansevoort; entered the regular artillery service, April, 1861, and fought gallantly during the Peninsular campaign of 1862, and in several battles afterwards. He first became lieutenant-colonel and then colonel of the 13th N. Y. Volunteer Cavalry, with which he performed gallant service in Virginia. In 1865 he was brevetted brigadier-general of volunteers "for faithful and meritorious services," and became captain of artillery in the regular army. His health failed, and when returning from the Bahama Islands he died, April 12, 1871.

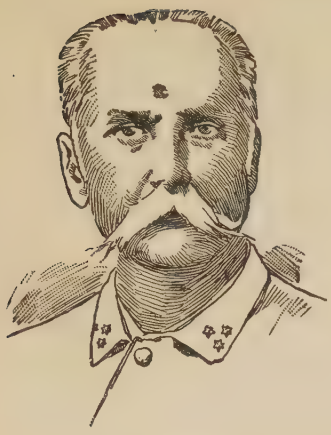
Gansevoort, PETER, military officer; born in Albany, N. Y., July 17, 1749; was appointed major of a New York regiment in July, 1775, and in August joined the army, under Montgomery, that invaded Canada. He rose to colonel the next year; and in April, 1777, he was put in command of Fort Schuyler (see STANWIX, FORT), which he gallantly defended against the British and Indians in August. He most effectually co-operated with Sullivan in his campaign in 1779, and afterwards in the Mohawk region. In 1781 he received from the legislature of New York the commission of brigadier-general. General Gansevoort filled civil offices, particularly that of commissioner for Indian affairs, with great fidelity. In 1803 he was made military agent and brigadier-general in the regular army. He died in Albany, N. Y., July 2, 1812.



PETER GANSEVOORT.

Garakonthie, DANIEL, chief of the Onondaga Indians. In 1658, although the French were compelled to flee from Onondaga, Garakonthie became a protector of Christian doctrines and an advocate for peace. It was not, however, till 1669 that he was converted and baptized. The name Daniel was given him at his baptism, and he learned to read and write. His influence went far in checking the superstition of the Indians and in settling difficulties between Indian tribes, and also in protecting French colonists. He died in Onondaga, N. Y., in 1676.

Garcia, CALIXTO, military officer; born in Holguin, Cuba, Oct. 14, 1836. He studied law and began practice, but subsequently joined the struggling patriots in Cuba, and in 1868 (with Carlos Manuel Cespedes and Marmol) planned the revolution which is known historically as the "Ten Years' War." On Oct. 10, 1868, he took up arms with Marmol at the head of 150 men. For a time great success attended them, and they captured many towns. For courage and ability in these actions Garcia was made brigadier-general under Gomez. Later the provisional government made him commander-in-chief of the Cuban forces in place of Gomez, removed. On Sept. 3, 1873, his victorious career suffered a decided reverse. With twenty men he was attacked by 500 Spaniards at San Antonio del Babor. When commanded to surrender he determined to die by his own hand rather than submit to capture. Placing a revolver in his mouth he fired upward. The ball came out at his forehead, and he carried a scar for life. He was taken to Manzanillo in his wounded condition, and when he recovered was sent to Spain. After peace was made in 1878 he was pardoned and returned to Cuba. He did not, however, consider the peace either honorable or binding, and took part in the "little war," in which he fought with Maceo. He was compelled to surrender, and was sent to Madrid, where he spent seventeen years under the surveillance of the po-



CALIXTO GARCIA.

lice. In September, 1895, he crossed the frontier into France, sailed to New York, and on Jan. 26, 1896, planned a filibustering expedition which was successful. Afterwards, while fitting out another expedition, he was arrested by the United States government. He forfeited his bail, and on March 15, 1896, met the *Bermuda*, a filibustering steamer, off Cape Henlopen, and reached Cuba with sixty-two Cubans, six field-guns, and a quantity of dynamite. He won several brilliant victories, among them that at Victoria de los Yunos, the loss of which was one of the reasons for the recall of General Weyler. After the occupation of Santiago by the Americans, Garcia withdrew from the Cuban army, because General Shafter would not turn over to him the command of Santiago; but he was subsequently reconciled to the new military conditions. In November of the same year (1898), he came to the United States as chairman of a commission to present the views of the Cuban leaders to President McKinley, but before accomplishing his purpose he suddenly died, Dec. 11. High official and military honors were paid to his remains in Washington.

Garde, PIERRE PAUL FRANCIS DE LA. See JESUIT MISSIONS.

Garden, ALEXANDER, military officer; born in Charleston, S. C., Dec. 4, 1757; was educated abroad; returning to America, he entered the Continental army in 1780; was promoted lieutenant in February, 1782. He was the author of *Anecdotes of the Revolutionary War, with Sketches of Character of Persons most Distinguished in the Southern States for Civil and Military Services.* He died in Charleston, Feb. 29, 1829.

Gardiner, LION, military officer; born in England in 1599; was sent to America in 1635 by the proprietors for the purpose of laying out a city, towns, and forts at the mouth of the Connecticut River. He built the fort which he called Saybrook after Lord Saye and Sele and Lord Brooke. In 1639 he purchased Gardiner's Island, at the extremity of Long Island, then known by the Indian name of Manchonat, and at first called Isle of Wight by Gardiner. He secured a patent for the island, which made it a "plantation" entirely distinct and separate from any of the colonies. It contains about 3,300 acres, and has descended by law of entail through eight lords of the manor, the last being David Johnson, who died in 1829. From him the property was passed through the hands of his two brothers and two sons. This is believed to be the only property in the United States which has descended by entail to its present holders (see ENTAIL OF ESTATES). The manor house built in 1775 is still in existence. The island was resorted to by Captain Kidd, who buried treasures there which were afterwards secured by Governor Bellomont, of New York. Gardiner died in Easthampton, N. Y., in 1663.

Gardner, CALEB, military officer; born in Newport, R. I., in 1739. When the Revolutionary War began he recruited a company and joined Richmond's regiment; in 1778 he greatly distinguished himself by piloting with his own hands to a place of safety the French fleet under Count d'Estaing, who was blockaded in the harbor at Newport by a large British squadron. As a reward for this feat the French King sent him a money gift. He died in Newport, R. I., Dec. 24, 1806.

Gardner, CHARLES K., military officer; born in Morris county, N. J., in 1787; joined the army in May, 1808; served in the War of 1812, being present at the actions of Chrysler's Field, Chippewa, Niagara, and Fort Erie; was in the Treasury Department in 1850–67. His publications include *A Dictionary of Commis*

sioned Officers who have served in the Army of the United States from 1789 to 1853; A Compendium of Military Tactics; and *A Permanent Designation of Companies, and Company Books, by the First Letters of the Alphabet.* He died in Washington, D. C., Nov. 1, 1869.

Gardner, DORSEY, lexicographer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Aug. 1, 1842; was educated at Yale University. His publications include *A Condensed Etymological Dictionary of the English Language;* a rearrangement of Webster's *American Dictionary of the English Language;* etc. He died in Short Hills, N. J., Nov. 30, 1894.

Gardner, JOHN LANE, military officer; born in Boston, Mass., Aug. 1, 1793; took part in the War of 1812 as lieutenant of infantry; was also in the war with the Seminoles in Florida and in the Mexican War, where he received brevets for gallant conduct at the battles of Cerro Gordo and Contreras. He was in command at Charleston when South Carolina seceded, but was relieved from his command by order of Secretary Floyd. He was succeeded in the command of Fort Moultrie by Maj. Robert Anderson. He died in Wilmington, Del., Feb. 19, 1869. See MOULTRIE, FORT.

Gardner, THOMAS, military officer; born in Cambridge, Mass., in 1724; was a member of the committee of safety in 1775, and in the same year raised a regiment in accordance with instructions from the Provincial Congress. At the battle of Bunker Hill he was severely wounded, and died the next day.

GARFIELD, JAMES ABRAM

Garfield, JAMES ABRAM, twentieth President of the United States; born in Orange, Cuyahoga co., O., Nov. 19, 1831. Left an orphan, his childhood and youth were spent alternately in school and in labor for his support. He drove horses on the Ohio canal; learned the carpenter's trade; worked at it during school vacations; entered the Geauga Academy, at Chester, O., in 1850, and, at the end of four years, had fitted himself for junior in college. He entered Williams College, Mass., that year; graduated in 1856; and then, till 1861, was first an instructor in Hiram College, and afterwards its president; gave his first vote for the Republican candidates, and took part in the canvass as a promising orator; studied law; was a member of the Ohio State Senate in 1859, and often preached to congregations of the Disciples' Church, of which he was a member. A firm supporter of the government, Garfield entered the military service in its defence, and in eastern Kentucky and elsewhere proved himself a skilful soldier, becoming a major-general of volunteers in 1863. In that year he was elected to Congress, where his career as a statesman was marvellous. He grasped every topic in debate with a master's hand. In 1880 he was elected to the United States Senate, and in the same year was elected President of the United States, and entered upon his duties on March 4, 1881. After an administration of four months, he was shot by Charles J. Guiteau, a disappointed office-seeker, in Washington, July 2, 1881, and lingered until

JAMES ABRAM GARFIELD AT 16.

Sept. 19 following, when he died at Elberon, on the sea-shore, in New Jersey. His death was sincerely mourned in all

parts of the civilized world. See BLAINE, JAMES GILLESPIE; GUITEAU, CHARLES J.

Inaugural Address.—On March 4, 1881, President Garfield delivered the following inaugural address, in which he eloquently considered the condition of the country at the turning of a century of its constitutional existence:

———

Fellow-Citizens,—We stand to-day upon an eminence which overlooks 100 years of national life—a century crowded with perils, but crowned with the triumphs of liberty and law. Before continuing the onward march let us pause on this height for a moment to strengthen our faith and renew our hope by a glance at the pathway along which our people have travelled.

It is now three days more than 100 years since the adoption of the first written Constitution of the United States —the Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union. The new republic was then beset with danger on every hand. It had not conquered a place in the family of nations. The decisive battle of the war for independence, whose centennial anniversary will soon be gratefully celebrated at Yorktown, had not yet been fought. The colonists were struggling not only against the armies of a great nation, but against the settled opinions of mankind; for the world did not then believe that the supreme authority of government could be safely intrusted to the guardianship of the people themselves.

We cannot overestimate the fervent love of liberty, the intelligent courage, and the sum of common-sense with which our fathers made the great experiment of self-government. When they found, after a short trial, that the confederacy of States was too weak to meet the necessities of a vigorous and expanding republic, they boldly set it aside, and in its stead established a national union, founded directly upon the will of the people, endowed with full power of self-preservation and ample authority for the accomplishment of its great object.

Under this Constitution the boundaries of freedom have been enlarged, the foundations of order and peace have been strengthened, and the growth of our people in all the better elements of national life has indicated the wisdom of the founders and given new hope to their descendants. Under this Constitution our people long ago made themselves safe against danger from without and secured for their mariners and flag equality of rights on all the seas. Under this Constitution twenty-five States have been added to the Union, with constitutions and laws, framed and enforced by their own citizens, to secure the manifold blessings of local self-government.

The jurisdiction of this Constitution now covers an area fifty times greater than that of the original thirteen States and a population twenty times greater than that of 1780.

The supreme trial of the Constitution came at last under the tremendous pressure of civil war. We ourselves are witnesses that the Union emerged from the blood and fire of that conflict purified and made stronger for all the beneficent purposes of good government.

And now, at the close of this first century of growth, with the inspirations of its history in their hearts, our people have lately reviewed the condition of the nation, passed judgment upon the conduct and opinions of political parties, and have registered their will concerning the future administration of the government. To interpret and to execute that will in accordance with the Constitution is the paramount duty of the executive.

Even from this brief review it is manifest that the nation is resolutely facing to the front, resolved to employ its best energies in developing the great possibilities of the future. Sacredly preserving whatever has been gained to liberty and good government during the century, our people are determined to leave behind them all those bitter controversies concerning things which have been irrevocably settled, and the further discussion of which can only stir up strife and delay the onward march.

The supremacy of the nation and its laws should be no longer a subject of debate. That discussion, which for half a century threatened the existence of the Union, was closed at last in the high court of war by a decree from which there is no appeal—that the Constitution and the laws made in pursuance thereof are and

shall continue to be the supreme law of the land, binding alike upon the States and the people. This decree does not disturb the autonomy of the States nor interfere with any of their necessary rights of local self-government, but it does fix and establish the permanent supremacy of the Union.

The will of the nation, speaking with the voice of battle and through the amended Constitution, has fulfilled the great promise of 1776 by proclaiming "liberty throughout the land to all the inhabitants thereof."

The elevation of the negro race from slavery to the full rights of citizenship is the most important political change we have known since the adoption of the Constitution of 1787. No thoughtful man can fail to appreciate its beneficent effect upon our institutions and people. It has freed us from the perpetual danger of war and dissolution. It has added immensely to the moral and industrial forces of our people. It has liberated the master as well as the slave from a relation which wronged and enfeebled both. It has surrendered to their own guardianship the manhood of more than 5,000,000 people, and has opened to each one of them a career of freedom and usefulness. It has given new inspiration to the power of self-help in both races by making labor more honorable to the one and more necessary to the other. The influence of this force will grow greater and bear richer fruit with the coming years.

No doubt this great change has caused serious disturbance to our Southern communities. This is to be deplored, though it was perhaps unavoidable. But those who resisted the change should remember that under our institutions there was no middle ground for the negro race between slavery and equal citizenship. There can be no permanent disfranchised peasantry in the United States. Freedom can never yield its fulness of blessings so long as the law or its administration places the smallest obstacle in the pathway of any virtuous citizen.

The emancipated race has already made remarkable progress. With unquestioning devotion to the Union, with a patience and gentleness not born of fear, they have "followed the light as God gave them to see the light." They are rapidly laying the material foundations of self-support, widening their circle of intelligence, and beginning to enjoy the blessings that gather around the homes of the industrious poor. They deserve the generous encouragement of all good men. So far as my authority can lawfully extend, they shall enjoy the full and equal protection of the Constitution and the laws.

The free enjoyment of equal suffrage is still in question, and a frank statement of the issue may aid its solution. It is alleged that in many communities negro citizens are practically denied the freedom of the ballot. In so far as the truth of this allegation is admitted, it is answered that in many places honest local government is impossible if the mass of uneducated negroes are allowed to vote. These are grave allegations. So far as the latter is true, it is the only palliation that can be offered for opposing the freedom of the ballot. Bad local government is certainly a great evil, which ought to be prevented; but to violate the freedom and sanctities of the suffrage is more than an evil. It is a crime which, if persisted in, will destroy the government itself. Suicide is not a remedy. If in other lands it be high treason to compass the death of the king, it shall be counted no less a crime here to strangle our sovereign power and stifle its voice.

It has been said that unsettled questions have no pity for the repose of nations. It should be said with the utmost emphasis that this question of the suffrage will never give repose or safety to the States or to the nation until each, within its own jurisdiction, makes and keeps the ballot free and pure by the strong sanctions of the law.

But the danger which arises from ignorance in the voter cannot be denied. It covers a field far wider than that of negro suffrage and the present condition of the race. It is a danger that lurks and hides in the sources and fountains of power in every State. We have no standard by which to measure the disaster that may be brought upon us by ignorance and vice in the citizens when joined to corruption and fraud in the suffrage.

The voters of the Union, who make and unmake constitutions, and upon whose will

hang the destinies of our governments, can transmit their supreme authority to no successors save the coming generation of voters, who are the sole heirs of sovereign power. If that generation comes to its inheritance blinded by ignorance and corrupted by vice, the fall of the republic will be certain and remediless.

The census has already sounded the alarm in the appalling figures which mark how dangerously high the tide of illiteracy has risen among our voters and their children.

To the South this question is of supreme importance. But the responsibility for the existence of slavery did not rest upon the South alone. The nation itself is responsible for the extension of the suffrage, and is under special obligations to aid in removing the illiteracy which it has added to the voting population. For the North and South alike there is but one remedy. All the constitutional power of the nation and of the States, and all the volunteer forces of the people, should be surrendered to meet this danger by the savory influence of universal education.

It is the high privilege and sacred duty of those now living to educate their successors and fit them, by intelligence and virtue, for the inheritance which awaits them.

In this beneficent work sections and races should be forgotten and partisanship should be unknown. Let our people find a new meaning in the divine oracle which declares that "a little child shall lead them," for our own little children will soon control the destinies of the republic.

My countrymen, we do not now differ in our judgment concerning the controversies of past generations, and fifty years hence our children will not be divided in their opinions concerning our controversies. They will surely bless their fathers and their fathers' God that the Union was preserved, that slavery was overthrown, and that both races were made equal before the law. We may hasten or we may retard, but we cannot prevent, the final reconciliation. Is it not possible for us now to make a truce with time by anticipating and accepting its inevitable verdict?

Enterprises of the highest importance to our moral and material well-being unite us and offer ample employment of our best powers. Let all our people, leaving behind them the battle-fields of dead issues, move forward and in their strength of liberty and the restored Union win the grander victories of peace.

The prosperity which now prevails is without parallel in our history. Fruitful seasons have done much to secure it, but they have not done all. The preservation of the public credit and the resumption of specie payments, so successfully attained by the administration of my predecessors, have enabled our people to secure the blessings which the seasons brought.

By the experience of commercial nations in all ages it has been found that gold and silver afford the only safe foundation for a monetary system. Confusion has recently been created by variations in the relative value of the two metals, but I confidently believe that arrangements can be made between the leading commercial nations which will secure the general use of both metals. Congress should provide that the compulsory coinage of silver now required by law may not disturb our monetary system by driving either metal out of circulation. If possible, such an adjustment should be made that the purchasing power of every coined dollar will be exactly equal to its debt-paying power in all the markets of the world.

The chief duty of the national government in connection with the currency of the country is to coin money and declare its value. Grave doubts have been entertained whether Congress is authorized by the Constitution to make any form of paper money legal tender. The present issue of United States notes has been sustained by the necessities of war; but such paper should depend for its value and currency upon its convenience in use and its prompt redemption in coin at the will of the holder, and not upon its compulsory circulation. These notes are not money, but promises to pay money. If the holders demand it, the promise should be kept.

The refunding of the national debt at a lower rate of interest should be accomplished without compelling the withdrawal of the national bank notes, and thus disturbing the business of the country.

I venture to refer to the position I have

occupied on financial questions during a long service in Congress, and to say that time and experience have strengthened the opinions I have so often expressed on these subjects.

The finances of the government shall suffer no detriment which it may be possible for my administration to prevent.

The interests of agriculture deserve more attention from the government than they have yet received. The farms of the United States afford homes and employment for more than one-half our people, and furnish much the largest part of all our exports. As the government lights our coasts for the protection of mariners and the benefit of commerce, so it should give to the tillers of the soil the best lights of practical science and experience.

Our manufactures are rapidly making us industrially independent, and are opening to capital and labor new and profitable fields of employment. Their steady and healthy growth should still be matured. Our facilities for transportation should be promoted by the continued improvement of our harbors and great interior water-ways and by the increase of our tonnage on the ocean.

The development of the world's commerce has led to an urgent demand for shortening the great sea voyage around Cape Horn by constructing ship-canals or railways across the isthmus which unites the continents. Various plans to this end have been suggested and will need consideration, but none of them has been sufficiently matured to warrant the United States in extending pecuniary aid. The subject, however, is one which will immediately engage the attention of the government with a view to a thorough protection to American interests. We will urge no narrow policy nor seek peculiar or exclusive privileges in any commercial route; but, in the language of my predecessor, I believe it to be the right "and duty of the United States to assert and maintain such supervision and authority over any interoceanic canal across the isthmus that connects North and South America as will protect our national interests."

The Constitution guarantees absolute religious freedom. Congress is prohibited from making any law respecting an establishment of religion or prohibiting the free exercise thereof. The Territories of the United States are subject to the direct legislative authority of Congress, and hence the general government is responsible for any violation of the Constitution in any of them. It is therefore a reproach to the government that in the most populous of the Territories the constitutional guarantee is not enjoyed by the people, and the authority of Congress is set at naught. The Mormon Church not only offends the moral sense of manhood by sanctioning polygamy, but prevents the administration of justice through ordinary instrumentalities of law.

In my judgment it is the duty of Congress, while respecting to the uttermost the conscientious convictions and religious scruples of every citizen, to prohibit within its jurisdiction all criminal practices, especially of that class which destroy the family relations and endanger social order. Nor can any ecclesiastical organization be safely permitted to usurp in the smallest degree the functions and powers of the national government.

The civil service can never be placed on a satisfactory basis until it is regulated by law. For the good of the service itself, for the protection of those who are intrusted with the appointing power against the waste of time and obstruction to the public business caused by the inordinate pressure for place, and for the protection of incumbents against intrigue and wrong, I shall at the proper time ask Congress to fix the tenure of the minor offices of the several executive departments, and prescribe the grounds upon which removals shall be made during the terms for which incumbents have been appointed.

Finally, acting always within the authority and limitations of the Constitution, invading neither the rights of the States nor the reserved rights of the people, it will be the purpose of my administration to maintain the authority of the nation in all places within its jurisdiction; to enforce obedience to all the laws of the Union in the interests of the people; to demand rigid economy in all the expenditures of the government, and to require the honest and faithful service of all executive officers, remembering that

J. A. Garfield

the offices were created, not for the benefit of incumbents or their supporters, but for the service of the government.

And now, fellow-citizens, I am about to assume the great trust which you have committed to my hands. I appeal to you for that earnest and thoughtful support which makes this government in fact, as it is in law, a government of the people.

I shall greatly rely upon the wisdom and patriotism of Congress, and of those who may share with me the responsibilities and duties of administration, and, above all, upon our efforts to promote the welfare of this great people and their governments I reverently invoke the support and blessings of Almighty God.

The Western Reserve.—On Sept. 16, 1873, General Garfield delivered the address that follows before the Historical Society of Geauga county, Ohio:

From the historian's stand-point, our country is peculiarly and exceptionally fortunate. The origin of nearly all great nations, ancient and modern, is shrouded in fable or traditionary legend. The story of the founding of Rome by the wolf-nursed brothers, Romulus and Remus, has long been classed among myths of history; and the more modern story of Hengist and Horsa leading the Saxons to England is almost equally legendary. The origin of Paris can never be known. Its foundation was laid long before Gaul had written records. But the settlement, civilization, and political institutions of our country can be traced from their first hour by the clear light of history. It is true that over this continent hangs an impenetrable veil of tradition, mystery, and silence. But it is the tradition of races fast passing away; the mystery of a still earlier race, which flourished and perished long before its discovery by the Europeans. The story of the Mound-builders can never be told. The fate of the Indian tribes will soon be a half-forgotten tale. But the history of European civilization and institutions on this continent can be traced with precision and fulness, unless we become forgetful of the past, and neglect to save and perpetuate its precious memorials.

In discussing the scope of historical study in reference to our country, I will call attention to a few general facts concerning its discovery and settlement.

First.—The Romantic Period of Discovery on this Continent.

There can scarcely be found in the realms of romance anything more fascinating than the records of discovery and adventure during the two centuries that followed the landing of Columbus on the soil of the New World. The greed for gold; the passion for adventure; the spirit of chivalry; the enthusiasm and fanaticism of religion—all conspired to throw into America the hardiest and most daring spirits of Europe, and made the vast wilderness of the New World the theatre of the most stirring achievements that history has recorded.

Early in the sixteenth century, Spain, turning from the conquest of Granada and her triumph over the Moors, followed her golden dreams of the New World with the same spirit that in an earlier day animated her Crusaders. In 1528 Ponce de Leon began his search for the fountain of perpetual youth, the tradition of which he had learned among the natives of the West Indies. He discovered the low-lying coasts of Florida, and explored its interior. Instead of the fountain of youth, he found his grave among its everglades.

A few years later De Soto, who had accompanied Pizarro in the conquest of Peru, landed in Florida with a gallant array of knights and nobles, and commenced his explorations through the western wilderness. In 1541 he reached the banks of the Mississippi River, and, crossing it, pushed his discoveries westward over the great plains; but, finding neither the gold nor the South Sea of his dreams, he returned to be buried in the waters of the great river he had discovered.

While England was more leisurely exploring the bays and rivers of the Atlantic coast, and searching for gold and peltry, the chevaliers and priests of France were chasing their dreams in the North, searching for a passage to China and the realms of Far Cathay, and telling the mystery of the Cross to the Indian tribes of the far West. Coasting northward, her bold navigators discovered the mouth of the St. Lawrence; and in 1525 Cartier sailed up its broad current to the rocky

heights of Quebec, and to the rapids above Montreal, which were afterwards named La Chine, in derision of the belief that the adventurers were about to find China.

In 1609 Champlain pushed above the rapids and discovered the beautiful lake that bears his name. In 1615 Priest La Caron pushed northward and westward through the wilderness and discovered Lake Huron.

In 1635 the Jesuit missionaries founded the Mission St. Mary. In 1654 another priest had entered the wilderness of northern New York and found the salt springs of Onondaga. In 1659–60 French traders and priests passed the winter on Lake Superior and established missions along its shores.

Among the earlier discoverers, no name shines out with more brilliancy than that of the Chevalier La Salle. The story of his explorations can scarcely be equalled in romantic interest by any of the stirring tales of the Crusaders. Born of a proud and wealthy family in the north of France, he was destined for the service of the church and of the Jesuit order. But his restless spirit, fired with the love of adventure, broke away from the ecclesiastical restraints to confront the dangers of the New World, and to extend the empire of Louis XIV. From the best evidence accessible, it appears that he was the first white man that saw the Ohio River. At twenty-six years of age we find him with a small party, near the western extremity of Lake Ontario, boldly entering the domain of the dreaded Iroquois, travelling southward and westward through the wintry wilderness until he reached a branch of the Ohio, probably the Alleghany. He followed it to the main stream, and descended that, until in the winter of 1669 and 1670 he reached the Falls of the Ohio, near the present site of Louisville. His companions refusing to go farther, he returned to Quebec, and prepared for still greater undertakings.

In the mean time the Jesuit missionaries had been pushing their discoveries on the northern lake. In 1673 Joliet and Marquette started from Green Bay, dragging their canoes up the rapids of Fox River; crossed Lake Winnebago; found Indian guides to conduct them to the waters of the Wisconsin; descended that stream to the westward, and on the 16th of June reached the Mississippi near the spot where now stands the city of Prairie du Chien. To-morrow will be the 200th anniversary of that discovery. One hundred and thirty-two years before that time De Soto had seen the same river more than 1,000 miles below; but during that interval it is not known that any white man had looked upon its waters.

Turning southward, these brave priests descended the great river, amid the awful solitudes. The stories of demons and monsters of the wilderness which abounded among the Indian tribes did not deter them from pushing their discoveries. They continued their journey southward to the mouth of the Arkansas River, telling as best they could the story of the Cross to the wild tribes along the shores. Returning from the Kaskaskias, and travelling thence to Lake Michigan, they reached Green Bay at the end of September, 1673, having on their journey paddled their canoes more than 2,500 miles. Marquette remained to establish missions among the Indians, and to die, three years later, on the western shore of Lake Michigan, while Joliet returned to Quebec to report his discoveries.

In the mean time Count Frontenac, a noble of France, had been made governor of Canada, and found in La Salle a fit counsellor and assistant in his vast schemes of discovery. La Salle was sent to France, to enlist the Court and the ministers of Louis; and in 1677–78 returned to Canada, with full power under Frontenac to carry forward his grand enterprises. He had developed three great purposes: first, to realize the old plan of Champlain, the finding of a pathway to China across the American continent; second, to occupy and develop the regions of the northern lakes; and, third, to descend the Mississippi and establish a fortified post at its mouth, thus securing an outlet for the trade of the interior and checking the progress of Spain on the Gulf of Mexico.

In pursuance of this plan, we find La Salle and his companions, in January, 1679, dragging their cannon and materials for ship-building around the Falls of Niagara, and laying the keel of a vessel 2 leagues above the cataract, at the

mouth of Cayuga Creek. She was a schooner of 45 tons burden, and was named *The Griffin*. On Aug. 7, 1679, with an armament of five cannon and a crew and company of thirty-four men, she started on her voyage up Lake Erie, the first sail ever spread over the waters of our lake. On the fourth day she entered Detroit River; and, after encountering a terrible storm on Lake Huron, passed the strait and reached Green Bay early in September. A few weeks later she started back for Niagara, laden with furs, and was never heard from.

While awaiting the supplies which *The Griffin* was expected to bring, La Salle explored Lake Michigan to its southern extremity, ascended the St. Joseph, crossed the portage to Kankakee, descended the Illinois, and, landing at an Indian village on the site of the present village of Utica, Ill., celebrated mass on New Year's Day, 1680. Before the winter was ended he became certain that *The Griffin* was lost. But, undaunted by his disasters, on March 3, with five companions, he began the incredible feat of making the journey to Quebec on foot in the dead of winter. This he accomplished. He reorganized his expedition, conquered every difficulty, and on Dec. 21, 1681, with a party of fifty-four Frenchmen and friendly Indians, set out for the present site of Chicago, and by way of the Illinois River reached the Mississippi, Feb. 6, 1682. He descended its stream, and on April 9, 1682, standing on the shores of the Gulf of Mexico, solemnly proclaimed to his companions and to the wilderness that, in the name of Louis the Great, he took possession of the Great Valley watered by the Mississippi River. He set up a column, and inscribed upon it the arms of France, and named the country Louisiana. Upon this act rested the claim of France to the vast region stretching from the Alleghany to the Rocky Mountains, from the Rio Grande and the Gulf to the farthest springs of the Missouri.

I will not follow further the career of the great explorers. Enough has been said to exhibit the spirit and character of their work. I would I were able to inspire the young men of this country with a desire to read the history of these stirring days of discovery that opened up to Europe the mysteries of this New World.

As Irving has well said of their work: "It was poetry put into action; it was the knight-errantry of the Old World carried into the depths of the American wilderness. The personal adventures; the feats of individual prowess; the picturesque descriptions of steel-clad cavaliers, with lance and helm and prancing steed, glittering through the wilderness of Florida, Georgia, Alabama, and the prairies of the far West—would seem to us mere fictions of romance did they not come to us in the matter-of-fact narratives of those who were eye-witnesses, and who recorded minute memoranda of every incident."

Second.—The Struggle for National Dominion.

I next invite your attention to the less stirring but not less important struggle for the possession of the New World which succeeded the period of discovery.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century North America was claimed mainly by three great powers. Spain held possession of Mexico and a belt reaching eastward to the Atlantic and northward to the southern line of Georgia except a portion near the mouth of the Mississippi held by the French. England held from the Spanish line on the south to the northern lakes and the St. Lawrence and westward to the Alleghanies. France held all north of the lakes and west of the Alleghanies, and southward to the possessions of Spain. Some of the boundary-lines were but vaguely defined, others were disputed; but the general outlines were as stated.

Besides the struggle for national possession, the religious element entered largely into the contest. It was a struggle between the Catholic and Protestant faiths. The Protestant colonies of England were enveloped on three sides by the vigorous and perfectly organized Catholic powers of France and Spain.

Indeed, at an early date, by the bull of Pope Alexander VI., all America had been given to the Spaniards. But France, with a zeal equal to that of Spain, had entered the list to contest for the prize. So far as the religious struggle was concerned,

the efforts of France and Spain were resisted only by the Protestants of the Atlantic coast.

The main chain of the Alleghanies was supposed to be impassable until 1714, when Governor Spotswood, of Virginia, led an expedition to discover a pass to the great valley beyond. He found one somewhere near the western boundary of Virginia, and by it descended to the Ohio. On his return he established the "Transmontane Order," or "Knights of the Golden Horse-shoe." On the sandy plains of eastern Virginia horse-shoes were rarely used, but, in climbing the mountains, he had found them necessary, and, on creating his companions knights of this new order, he gave to each a golden horse-shoe, inscribed with the motto,

"Sic **juvat** transcendere montes."

He represented to the British ministry the great importance of planting settlements in the western valley; and, with the foresight of a statesman, pointed out the danger of allowing the French the undisputed possession of that rich region.

The progress of England had been slower, but more certain, than that of her great rival. While the French were establishing trading-posts at points widely remote from each other, along the lakes and the Mississippi, and in the wilderness of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, the English were slowly but firmly planting their settlements on the Atlantic slope, and preparing to contest for the rich prize of the great West. They possessed one great advantage over their French rivals. They had cultivated the friendship of the Iroquois Confederacy, the most powerful combination of Indian tribes known to the New World. That confederacy held possession of the southern shores of lakes Ontario and Erie; and their hostility to the French had confined the settlements of that people mainly to the northern shores.

During the first half of the eighteenth century many treaties were made by the English with these confederated tribes, and some valuable grants of land were obtained on the eastern slope of the Mississippi Valley.

About the middle of that century the British government began to recognize the wisdom of Governor Spotswood, and perceived that an empire was soon to be saved or lost.

In 1748 a company was organized by Thomas Lee and Lawrence and Augustine Washington, under the name of "The Ohio Company," and received a royal grant of 500,000 acres of land in the valley of the Ohio. In 1751 a British trading-post was established on the Big Miami; but in the following year it was destroyed by the French. Many similar efforts of the English colonists were resisted by the French; and during the years 1751–53 it became manifest that a great struggle was imminent between the French and the English for the possession of the West. The British ministers were too much absorbed in intrigues at home to appreciate the importance of this contest; and they did but little more than to permit the colonies to protect their rights in the valley of the Ohio.

In 1753 the Ohio Company had opened a road, by "Will's Creek," into the western valley, and were preparing to locate their colony. At the same time the French had sent a force to occupy and hold the line of the Ohio. As the Ohio Company was under the especial protection of Virginia, the governor of that colony determined to send a messenger to the commander of the French forces and demand the reason for invading the British dominions. For this purpose he selected George Washington, then twenty-one years of age, who, with six assistants, set out from Williamsburg, Va., in the middle of November, for the waters of the Ohio and the lakes. After a journey of nine days through sleet and snow, he reached the Ohio, at the junction of the Alleghany and the Monongahela; and his quick eye seemed to foresee the destiny of the place. "I spent some time," said he, "in viewing the rivers. The land in the fork has the absolute command of both." On this spot Fort Pitt was afterwards built, and still later the city of Pittsburg.

As Bancroft has said, "After creating in imagination a fortress and city, his party swam across the Alleghany, and wrapped their blankets around them for the night on the northwest bank." Proceeding down the Ohio to Logstown, he

held a council with the Shawnees and the Delawares, who promised to secure the aid of the Six Nations in resisting the French. He then proceeded to the French posts at Venango and Fort Le Bœuf (the latter 15 miles from Lake Erie), and warned the commanders that the rights of Virginia must not be invaded. He received for his answer that the French would seize every Englishman in the Ohio Valley.

Returning to Virginia in January, 1754, he reported to the governor, and immediate preparations were made by the colonists to maintain their rights in the West and resist the incursions of the French. In this movement originated the first military union among the English colonists.

Although peace existed between France and England, formidable preparations were made by the latter to repel encroachments on the frontier, from Ohio to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Braddock was sent to America, and in 1755, at Alexandria, Va., he planned four expeditions against the French.

It is not necessary to speak in detail of the war that followed. After Braddock's defeat, near the forks of the Ohio, which occurred on July 9, 1755, England herself took active measures for prosecuting the war.

On Nov. 25, 1758, Forbes captured Fort Duquesne, which thus passed into the possession of the English, and was named Fort Pitt, in honor of the great minister. In 1759 Quebec was captured by General Wolfe; and the same year Niagara fell into the hands of the English.

In 1760 an English force, under Major Rogers, moved westward from Niagara, to occupy the French posts on the upper lakes. They coasted along the south shore of Erie, the first English-speaking people that sailed its waters. Near the mouth of the Grand River they met in council the chiefs of the great warrior Pontiac. A few weeks later they took possession of Detroit. "Thus," says Mr. Bancroft, "was Michigan won by Great Britain, though not for itself. There were those who foresaw that the acquisition of Canada was the prelude of American independence."

Late in December Rogers returned to the Maumee; and, setting out from the point where Sandusky City now stands, crossed the Huron River to the northern branch of White Woman's River, and, passing thence by the English village of Beaverstown, and up the Ohio, reached Fort Pitt on Jan. 23, 1761, just a month after he left Detroit.

Under the leadership of Pitt, England was finally triumphant in this great struggle; and by the treaty of Paris, of Feb. 10, 1763, she acquired Canada and all the territory east of the Mississippi River, and southward to the Spanish territory, excepting New Orleans and the island on which it is situated.

During the twelve years which followed the treaty of Paris, the English colonists were pushing their settlements into the newly acquired territory; but they encountered the opposition of the Six Nations and their allies, who made fruitless efforts to capture the British posts—Detroit, Niagara, and Fort Pitt.

At length, in 1768, Sir William Johnson concluded a treaty at Fort Stanwix with these tribes, by which all the lands south of the Ohio and the Alleghany were sold to the British, the Indians to remain in undisturbed possession of the territory north and west of those rivers. New companies were organized to occupy the territory thus obtained.

"Among the foremost speculators in Western lands at that time," says the author of *Annals of the West*, "was George Washington." In 1769 he was one of the signers of a petition to the King for a grant of 2,500,000 acres in the West. In 1770 he crossed the mountains and descended the Ohio to the mouth of the Great Kanawha, to locate the 10,000 acres to which he was entitled for services in the French War.

Virginians planted settlements in Kentucky; and pioneers from all the colonies began to occupy the frontiers, from the Alleghany to the Tennessee.

Third.—The War of the Revolution, and its Relations to the West.

How came the thirteen colonies to possess the valley of the Mississippi? The object of their struggle was independence, and yet by the treaty of peace in 1783 not only was the independence of the thirteen colonies conceded, but there was

granted to the new republic a western territory bounded by the northern lakes, the Mississippi, and the French and Spanish possessions.

How did these hills and valleys become a part of the United States? It is true that by virtue of royal charters several of the colonies set up claims extending to the "South Sea." The knowledge which the English possessed of the geography of this country at that time is illustrated by the fact that Capt. John Smith was commissioned to sail up the Chickahominy and find a passage to China! But the claims of the colonies were too vague to be of any consequence in determining the boundaries of the two governments. Virginia had indeed extended her settlements into the region south of the Ohio River, and during the Revolution had annexed that country to the Old Dominion, calling it the county of Kentucky. But previous to the Revolution the colonies had taken no such action in reference to the territory northwest of the Ohio.

The cession of that great territory, under the treaty of 1783, was due mainly to the foresight, the courage, and the endurance of one man, who never received from his country any adequate recognition for his great service. That man was George Rogers Clark; and it is worth your while to consider the work he accomplished. Born in Virginia, he was in early life a surveyor, and afterwards served in Lord Dunmore's War. In 1776 he settled in Kentucky, and was, in fact, the founder of that commonwealth. As the war of the Revolution progressed, he saw that the pioneers west of the Alleghanies were threatened by two formidable dangers: first, by the Indians, many of whom had joined the standard of Great Britain; and, second, by the success of the war itself. For, should the colonies obtain their independence while the British held possession of the Mississippi Valley, the Alleghanies would be the western boundary of the new republic, and the pioneers of the West would remain subject to Great Britain.

Inspired by these views, he made two journeys to Virginia to represent the case to the authorities of that colony. Failing to impress the House of Burgesses with the importance of warding off these dangers, he appealed to the governor, Patrick Henry, and received from him authority to enlist seven companies to go to Kentucky subject to his orders, and serve for three months after their arrival in the West. This was a public commission.

Another document, bearing date Williamsburg, Jan. 2, 1778, was a secret commission, which authorized him, in the name of Virginia, to capture the military posts held by the British in the Northwest. Armed with this authority, he proceeded to Pittsburg, where he obtained ammunition and floated it down the river to Kentucky, succeeded in enlisting seven companies of pioneers, and in the month of June, 1778, commenced his march through the untrodden wilderness to the region of the Illinois. With a daring that is scarcely equalled in the annals of war, he captured the garrisons of Kaskaskia, St. Vincent, and Cahokia, and sent his prisoners to the governor of Virginia, and by his energy and skill won over the French inhabitants of that region to the American cause.

In October, 1778, the House of Burgesses passed an act declaring that "all the citizens of the Commonwealth of Virginia, who are already settled there, or shall hereafter be settled on the west side of the Ohio, shall be included in the District of Kentucky, which shall be called Illinois county." In other words, George Rogers Clark conquered the Territory of the Northwest in the name of Virginia, and the flag of the republic covered it at the close of the war.

In negotiating the treaty of peace at Paris, in 1783, the British commissioners insisted on the Ohio River as the northwestern boundary of the United States; and it was found that the only tenable ground on which the American commissioners relied, to sustain our claim to the Lakes and the Mississippi as the boundary, was the fact that George Rogers Clark had conquered the country, and Virginia was in undisputed possession of it at the cessation of hostilities.

In his *Notes on the Early Settlement of the Northwest Territory*, Judge Burnet says, "That fact [the capture of the British posts] was confirmed and admit-

ted, and was the chief ground on which the British commissioners reluctantly abandoned their claim."

It is a stain upon the honor of our country that such a man—the leader of pioneers who made the first lodgment on the site now occupied by Louisville, who was in fact the founder of the State of Kentucky, and who by his personal foresight and energy gave nine great States to the republic—was allowed to sink under a load of debt incurred for the honor and glory of his country.

In 1799 Judge Burnet rode some 10 or 12 miles from Louisville into the country to visit this veteran hero. He says he was induced to make this visit by the veneration he entertained for Clark's military talents and services.

"He had," says Burnet, "the appearance of a man born to command, and fitted by nature for his destiny. There was a gravity and solemnity in his demeanor resembling that which so eminently distinguished the venerated Father of his Country. A person familiar with the lives and character of the military veterans of Rome in the days of her greatest power might readily have selected *this remarkable man* as a specimen of the model he had formed of them in his own mind; but he was rapidly falling a victim to his extreme sensibility, and to the ingratitude of his native State, under whose banner he had fought bravely and with great success.

"The time will certainly come when the enlightened and magnanimous citizens of Louisville will remember the debt of gratitude they owe the memory of that distinguished man. He was the leader of the pioneers who made the first lodgment on the site now covered by their rich and splendid city. He was its protector during the years of its infancy, and in the period of its greatest danger. Yet the traveller, who had read of his achievements, admired his character, and visited the theatre of his brilliant deeds, discovers nothing indicating the place where his remains are deposited, and where he can go and pay a tribute of respect to the memory of the departed and gallant hero."

This eulogy of Judge Burnet is fully warranted by the facts of history. There is preserved in the War Department at Washington a portrait of Clark, which gives unmistakable evidence of a character of rare grasp and power. No one can look upon that remarkable face without knowing that the original was a man of unusual force.

Fourth.—Organization and Settlement of the Northwest Territory.

Soon after the close of the Revolution our Western country was divided into three territories — the Territory of the Mississippi, the Territory south of the Ohio, and the Territory northwest of the Ohio. For the purposes of this address I shall consider only the organization and settlement of the latter.

It would be difficult to find any country so covered with conflicting claims of title as the territory of the Northwest. Several States, still asserting the validity of their royal charters, set up claims more or less definite to portions of this territory. First—by royal charter of 1662, confirming a council charter of 1630, Connecticut claimed a strip of land bounded on the east by the Narraganset River, north by Massachusetts, south by Long Island Sound, and extending westward between the parallels of 41° and 42° 2′ north latitude, to the mythical "South Sea." Second—New York, by her charter of 1614, claimed a territory marked by definite boundaries, lying across the boundaries of the Connecticut charter. Third—by the grant to William Penn, in 1664, Pennsylvania claimed a territory overlapping part of the territory of both these colonies. Fourth—the charter of Massachusetts also conflicted with some of the claims above mentioned. Fifth—Virginia claimed the whole of the Northwest territory by right of conquest, and in 1779, by an act of her legislature, annexed it as a county. Sixth—several grants had been made of special tracts to incorporated companies by the different States. And, finally, the whole territory of the Northwest was claimed by the Indians as their own.

The claims of New York, Massachusetts, and part of the claim of Pennsylvania had been settled before the war by royal commissioners; the others were still unadjusted. It became evident that no satisfactory settlement could be made except by Congress. That body urged the several States to make a cession of the

lands they claimed, and thus enable the general government to open the Northwest for settlement.

On March 1, 1784, Thomas Jefferson, Samuel Hardy, Arthur Lee, and James Monroe, delegates in Congress, executed a deed of cession in the name of Virginia, by which they transferred to the United States the title of Virginia to the Northwest Territory, but reserving to that State 150,000 acres of land which Virginia had promised to George Rogers Clark, and to the officers and soldiers who with him captured the British posts in the West. Also, another tract of land between the Scioto and Little Miami, to enable Virginia to pay her promised bounties to her officers and soldiers of the Revolutionary army.

On Oct. 27, 1784, a treaty was made at Fort Stanwix (now Rome, N. Y.) with the Six Nations, by which these tribes ceded to the United States their vague claims to the lands north and west of the Ohio. On Jan. 31, 1785, a treaty was made at Fort McIntosh (now the town of Beaver, Pa.) with the four Western tribes, the Wyandottes, the Delawares, the Chippewas, and the Tawas, by which all their lands in the Northwest Territory were ceded to the United States, except that portion bounded by a line from the mouth of the Cuyahoga up that river to the portage between the Cuyahoga and Tuscarawas, thence down that branch to the mouth of Sandy, thence westwardly to the portage of the Big Miami, which runs into the Ohio, thence along the portage to the Great Miami or Maumee, and down the southeast side of the river to its mouth, thence along the shore of Lake Erie to the mouth of the Cuyahoga. The territory thus described was to be forever the exclusive possession of these Indians.

In 1788 a settlement was made at Marietta, and soon after other settlements were begun. But the Indians were dissatisfied, and, by the intrigues of their late allies, the British, a savage and bloody war ensued, which delayed for several years the settlement of the State. The campaign of General Harmar in 1790 was only a partial success. In the following year a more formidable force was placed under the command of General St. Clair, who suffered a disastrous and overwhelming defeat on Nov. 4 of that year, near the head-waters of the Wabash.

It was evident that nothing but a war so decisive as to break the power of the Western tribes could make the settlement of Ohio possible. There are but few things in the career of George Washington that so strikingly illustrate his sagacity and prudence as the policy he pursued in reference to this subject. He made preparations for organizing an army of 5,000 men, appointed General Wayne to the command of a special force, and early in 1792 drafted detailed instructions for giving it special discipline to fit it for Indian warfare. During that and the following year he exhausted every means to secure the peace of the West by treaties with the tribes.

But agents of England and Spain were busy in intrigues with the Indians in hopes of recovering a portion of the great empire they had lost by the treaty of 1783. So far were the efforts of England carried that a British force was sent to the rapids of the Maumee, where they built a fort, and inspired the Indians with the hope that the British would join them in fighting the forces of the United States.

All efforts to make a peaceable settlement on any other basis than the abandonment on the part of the United States of all territory north of the Ohio having failed, General Wayne proceeded with that wonderful vigor which had made him famous on so many fields of the Revolution, and on Aug. 20, 1794, defeated the Indians and their allies on the banks of the Maumee, and completely broke the power of their confederation.

On Aug. 3, 1795, General Wayne concluded at Greenville a treaty of lasting peace with these tribes and thus opened the State to settlement. In this treaty there was reserved to the Indians the same territory west of the Cuyahoga as described in the treaty of Fort McIntosh of 1785.

Fifth.—Settlement of the Western Reserve.

I have now noticed briefly the adjustment of the several claims to the Northwestern Territory, excepting that of Connecticut. It has already been seen that

Connecticut claimed a strip westward from the Narraganset River to the Mississippi, between the parallels of 41° and 42° 2′; but that portion of her claim which crossed the territory of New York and Pennsylvania had been extinguished by adjustment. Her claim to the territory west of Pennsylvania was unsettled until Sept. 14, 1786, when she ceded it all to the United States, except that portion lying between the parallels above named and a line 120 miles west of the western line of Pennsylvania and parallel with it. This tract of country was about the size of the present State, and was called "New Connecticut."

In May, 1792, the legislature of Connecticut granted to those of her citizens whose property had been burned or otherwise spoliated by the British during the war of the Revolution half a million of acres from the west end of the reserve. These were called "The Fire Lands."

On Sept. 5, 1795, Connecticut executed a deed to John Caldwell, Jonathan Brace, and John Morgan, trustees for the Connecticut Land Company, for 3,000,000 acres of reserve lying west of Pennsylvania, for $1,200,000, or at the rate of 40 cents per acre. The State gave only a quit-claim deed, transferring only such title as she possessed, and leaving all the remaining Indian titles to the reserve to be extinguished by the purchasers themselves. With the exception of a few hundred acres previously sold in the neighborhood of the Salt Spring tract on the Mahoning, all titles to lands on the reserve east of "The Fire Lands" rest on this quit-claim deed of Connecticut to the three trustees, who were all living as late as 1836, and joined in making deeds to the lands on the reserve.

On the same day that the trust deed was made, articles of association were signed by the proprietors, providing for the government of the company. The management of its affairs was intrusted to seven directors. They determined to extinguish the Indian title, and survey their land into townships 5 miles square. Moses Cleaveland, one of the directors, was made general agent; Augustus Porter, principal surveyor; and Seth Pease, astronomer and surveyor. To these were added four assistant surveyors, a commissary, a physician, and thirty-seven other employees. This party assembled at Schenectady, N. Y., in the spring of 1796, and prepared for their expedition.

It is interesting to follow them on their way to the Reserve. They ascended the Mohawk River in bateaux, passing through Little Falls, and from the present city of Rome took their boats and stores across into Wood Creek. Passing down the stream, they crossed the Oneida Lake, thence down the Oswego to Lake Ontario, coasting along the lake to Niagara. After encountering innumerable hardships, the party reached Buffalo on June 17, where they met Red Jacket and the principal chiefs of the Six Nations, and on the 23d of that month completed a contract with those chiefs, by which they purchased all the rights of those Indians to the lands on the Reserve, for £500, New York currency, to be paid in goods to the Western Indians, and two beef cattle and 100 gallons of whiskey to the Eastern Indians, besides gifts and provisions to all of them.

Setting out from Buffalo on June 27, they coasted along the shore of the lake, some of the party in boats and others marching along the banks.

In the journal of Seth Pease, published in Whittlesey's *History of Cleveland,* I find the following:

"Monday, July 4, 1796.—We that came by land arrived at the confines of New Connecticut, and gave three cheers precisely at five o'clock P.M. We then proceeded to Conneaut, at five hours thirty minutes, our boats got on an hour after; we pitched our tents on the east side."

In the journal of General Cleaveland is the following entry:

"On this Creek ('Conneaugh'), in New Connecticut Land, July 4, 1796, under General Moses Cleaveland, the surveyors and men sent by the Connecticut Land Company to survey and settle the Connecticut Reserve, were the first English people who took possession of it. . . .

"We gave three cheers and christened the place Fort Independence; and, after many difficulties, perplexities, and hardships were surmounted, and we were on the good and promised land, felt that a just tribute of respect to the day ought to be paid. There were in all, including

women and children, fifty in number. The men, under Captain Tinker, ranged themselves on the beach and fired a federal salute of fifteen rounds, and then the sixteenth in honor of New Connecticut. Drank several toasts. . . . Closed with three cheers. Drank several pails of grog. Supped and retired in good order."

Three days afterwards General Cleaveland held a council with Paqua, chief of the Massasagas, whose village was at Conneaut Creek. The friendship of these Indians was purchased by a few trinkets and $25 worth of whiskey.

A cabin was erected on the bank of Conneaut Creek; and, in honor of the commissary of the expedition, was called "Stow Castle." At this time the white inhabitants west of the Genesee River and along the coasts of the lakes were as follows: the garrison at Niagara, two families at Lewiston, one at Buffalo, one at Cleveland, and one at Sandusky. There were no other families east of Detroit; and, with the exception of a few adventurers at the Salt Springs of the Mahoning, the interior of New Connecticut was an unbroken wilderness.

The work of surveying was commenced at once. One party went southward on the Pennsylvania line to find the 41st parallel, and began the survey; another, under General Cleaveland, coasted along the lake to the mouth of the Cuyahoga, which they reached on July 22, and there laid the foundation of the chief city of the Reserve. A large portion of the survey was made during that season, and the work was completed in the following year.

By the close of the year 1800 there were thirty-two settlements on the Reserve, though as yet no organization of government had been established. But the pioneers were a people who had been trained in the principles and practices of civil order; and these were transplanted to their new home. In New Connecticut there was but little of that lawlessness which so often characterizes the people of a new country. In many instances a township organization was completed and their minister chosen before the pioneers left home. Thus they planted the institutions and opinions of Old Connecticut in their new wilderness homes.

There are townships on this Western Reserve which are more thoroughly New England in character and spirit than most of the towns of the New England of today. Cut off as they were from the metropolitan life that had gradually been moulding and changing the spirit of New England, they preserved here in the wilderness the characteristics of New England, as it was when they left it at the beginning of the century. This has given to the people of the Western Reserve those strongly marked qualities which have always distinguished them.

For a long time it was difficult to ascertain the political and legal status of the settlers on the Reserve. The State of Connecticut did not assume jurisdiction over its people, because the State had parted with her claim to the soil.

By a proclamation of Governor St. Clair, in 1788, Washington county had been organized, having its limits extended westward to the Scioto and northward to the mouth of the Cuyahoga, with Marietta as the county seat. These limits included a portion of the Western Reserve. But the Connecticut settlers did not consider this a practical government, and most of them doubted its legality.

By the end of the century seven counties, Washington, Hamilton, Ross, Wayne, Adams, Jefferson, and Knox, had been created, but none of them were of any practical service to the settlers on the Reserve. No magistrate had been appointed for that portion of the country, no civil process was established, and no mode existed of making legal conveyances.

But in the year 1800 the State of Connecticut, by act of her legislature, transferred to the national government all her claim to civil jurisdiction. Congress assumed the political control, and the President conveyed by patent the fee of the soil to the government of the State for the use of the grantees and the parties claiming under them. Whereupon, in pursuance of this authority, on Sept. 22, 1800, Governor St. Clair issued a proclamation establishing the county of Trumbull, to include within its boundaries the "Fire Lands" and adjacent islands, and ordered an election to be held at Warren, its county seat, on the second Tuesday of October. At that

election forty-two votes were cast, of which General Edward Paine received thirty-eight, and was thus elected a member of the Territorial legislature. All the early deeds on the Reserve are preserved in the records of Trumbull county.

A treaty was held at Fort Industry on July 4, 1805, between the commissioners of the Connecticut Land Company and the Indians, by which all the lands in the Reserve west of the Cuyahoga belonging to the Indians were ceded to the Connecticut Company.

Geauga was the second county of the Reserve. It was created by an act of the legislature, Dec. 31, 1805; and by a subsequent act its boundaries were made to include the present territory of Cuyahoga county as far west as the Fourteenth Range.

Portage county was established on Feb. 10, 1807; and on June 16, 1810, the act establishing Cuyahoga county went into operation. But that act all of Geauga west of the Ninth Range was made a part of Cuyahoga county. Ashtabula county was established on Jan. 22, 1811.

A considerable number of Indians remained on the Western Reserve until the breaking out of the War of 1812. Most of the Canadian tribes took up arms against the United States in that struggle, and a portion of the Indians of the Western Reserve joined their Canadian brethren. At the close of that war occasional bands of these Indians returned to their old haunts on the Cuyahoga and the Mahoning; but the inhabitants of the Reserve soon made them understand that they were unwelcome visitors after the part they had taken against us. Thus the War of 1812 substantially cleared the Reserve of its Indian inhabitants.

In this brief survey I have attempted to indicate the general character of the leading events connected with the discovery and settlement of our country. I cannot, on this occasion, further pursue the history of the settlement and building up of the counties and townships of the Western Reserve. I have already noticed the peculiar character of the people who converted this wilderness into the land of happy homes which we now behold on every hand. But I desire to call the attention of the young men and women who hear me to the duty they owe to themselves and their ancestors to study carefully and reverently the history of the great work which has been accomplished in this New Connecticut.

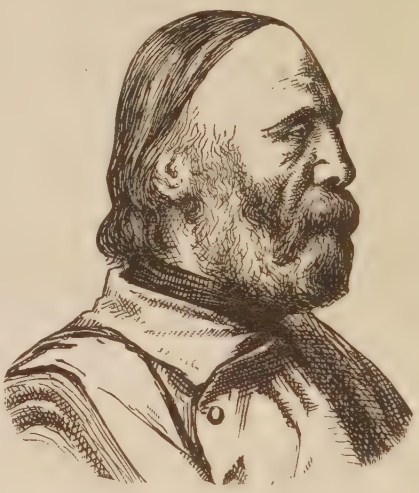
The pioneers who first broke ground here accomplished a work unlike that which fell to the lot of any succeeding generation. The hardships they endured, the obstacles they encountered, the life they led, the peculiar qualities they needed in their undertakings, and the traits of character developed by their works stand alone in our history. The generation that knew these first pioneers is fast passing away. But there are sitting in this audience to-day a few men and women whose memories date back to the early settlement. Here sits a gentleman near me who is older than the Western Reserve. He remembers a time when the axe of the Connecticut pioneer had never awakened the echoes of the wilderness here. How strange and wonderful a transformation has taken place since he was a child! It is our sacred duty to rescue from oblivion the stirring recollections of such men, and preserve them as memorials of the past, as lessons for our own inspiration and the instruction of those who shall come after us.

The materials for a history of this Reserve are rich and abundant. Its pioneers were not ignorant and thoughtless adventurers, but men of established character, whose opinions on civil and religious liberty had grown with their growth and become the settled convictions of their maturer years. Both here and in Connecticut the family records, journals, and letters, which are preserved in hundreds of families, if brought out and arranged in order, would throw a flood of light on every page of our history. Even the brief notice which informed the citizens of this county that a meeting was to be held here to-day to organize a Pioneer Society has called this great audience together, and they have brought with them many rich historical memorials. They have brought old colonial commissions given to early Connecticut soldiers of the Revolution, who became pioneers of the Reserve and whose children are here to-day. They have brought church and other records which date back to the begin-

ning of these settlements. They have shown us implements of industry which the pioneers brought in with them, many of which have been superseded by the superior mechanical contrivances of our time. Some of these implements are symbols of the spirit and character of the pioneers of the Reserve. Here is a broad-axe brought from Connecticut by John Ford, father of the late governor of Ohio; and we are told that the first work done with this axe by that sturdy old pioneer, after he had finished a few cabins for the families that came with him, was to hew out the timbers for an academy, the Burton Academy, to which so many of our older men owe the foundation of their education, and from which sprang the Western Reserve College.

These pioneers knew well that the three great forces which constitute the strength and glory of a free government are the family, the school, and the church. These three they planted here, and they nourished and cherished them with an energy and devotion scarcely equalled in any other quarter of the world. On this height were planted in the wilderness the symbols of this trinity of powers; and here, let us hope, may be maintained forever the ancient faith of our fathers in the sanctity of the home, the intelligence of the school, and the faithfulness of the church. Where these three combine in prosperous union, the safety and prosperity of the nation are assured. The glory of our country can never be dimmed while these three lights are kept shining with an undimmed lustre.

Garibaldi, GIUSEPPE, patriot; born at Nice, Italy, July 4, 1807; because of his political opinions was driven into exile in 1834, and went to South America, where he was employed in the service first of the republic of Rio Grande do Sul, and subsequently in that of Uruguay, in 1836–48. Returning to Italy, he entered the service of the Roman republic in 1849, and supreme command was given to him and to General Roselli. The grand defence of Rome against French intervention in 1849 was due principally to his tact and bravery. After this cause became hopeless, in 1850, he came to the United States, where he became a naturalized citizen, and where for about three years he followed the occupation of a soap-boiler on Staten Island. In 1854 he returned to Italy, and purchased the northern part of Caprera, where he remained until 1859, when he organized and commanded an independent corps, known as the "Hunters



GIUSEPPE GARIBALDI.

of the Alps," in the Sardinian service during the war of Sardinia and France against Austria. Secretly abetted by Sardinia, after peace was made, he organized an expedition against the Two Sicilies, having as his object the union of Italy. In May, 1860, he descended upon Sicily with 1,000 volunteers, and when he had made himself dictator he crossed to the mainland and expelled Francis II. from Naples and entered the capital, Sept. 7, 1860. Upon the union of the Two Sicilies with Sardinia, and the proclamation of Victor Emmanuel as King of Italy, March 17, 1860, he retired to Caprera. Anxious for the complete unification of Italy, he organized an expedition against Rome in 1862, but was defeated and taken prisoner by the Sardinians at Aspromonte, in August. A few years later he was again in arms against the Pope. Marching into the Campagna, he defeated the Papal troops at Monterotondo on Oct. 25, 1867, but shortly after, while moving upon Rome, he was defeated by the French and Papal army near Mentana. In 1870 the

misfortunes of France and an appeal from Gambetta decided him to take up the French cause against the Germans. He received the command of a corps called the "Volunteers of the Vosges." His son Ricciotti won a small victory over the Germans on Oct. 19, and that the latter advanced no further in that direction was due to the management of Garibaldi. He died at Caprera, June 1, 1882.

Garland, AUGUSTUS HILL; born in Tipton county, Tenn., June 11, 1832; was admitted to the bar of Arkansas in 1853, to which State his parents had removed when he was a child. He opposed the secession of his State, but accepted the same and was sent as delegate to the Provisional Congress at Montgomery, Ala., in 1861. He was also elected to the first Confederate Congress, and afterwards to the Confederate Senate. In 1867 he was elected United States Senator, but was not allowed to take his seat; in 1876 was again elected in place of Powell Clayton, and was admitted. He remained in the Senate until March, 1885, when he resigned to take the post of Attorney-General of the United States, offered him by President Cleveland. He resumed practice in 1889, and died in court, in Washington, D. C., Jan. 26, 1899.

Garlington, ERNEST A., military officer; born in Newberry Court-house, S. C., Feb. 20, 1853; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1876; commanded the Greeley Relief Expedition in 1883 (see ARCTIC EXPLORATION); was inspector-general of a cavalry division in Cuba in 1898, and participated in the siege of Santiago. His publications include *Historical Sketches of the 7th Cavalry Regiment; Cavalry Outposts, Advance and Rear Guards; Reconnoissance,* etc.

Garnett, ROBERT SELDEN, military officer; born in Essex county, Va., Dec. 16, 1819; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1841; served as aide to General Taylor in the war with Mexico. When the Civil War broke out he resigned from the National army, and in June, 1861, was appointed brigadier-general in the Confederate service, and assigned to the western part of Virginia. In the following month he was met by a large force of the National army at Carrick's Ford, in which action his troops were defeated and himself killed, July 13.

Garnier, JULIEN. See JESUIT MISSIONS.

Garrard, KENNER, military officer; born in Cincinnati, O., in 1830; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1851; was taken prisoner by the Confederates while on frontier duty in Texas, April 12, 1861, and paroled until exchanged in August, 1862; served with marked distinction through the remainder of the war, taking part in many important actions, including that of Blakely, which place was captured by his command; was brevetted major-general, U. S. A., Nov. 9, 1866. He died in Cincinnati, O., May 15, 1879.

Garrett, EDMUND H., author; born in Albany, N. Y., Oct. 19, 1853; was educated in Paris. His publications include *Three Heroines of New England Romance; Romance and Reality of the Puritan Coast;* and the *Pilgrim Shore.*

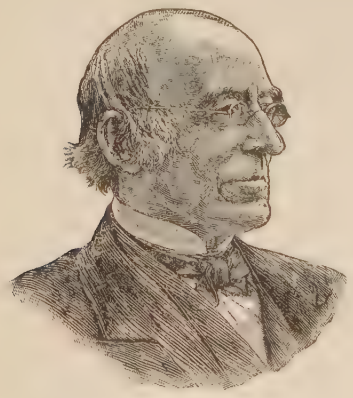
Garrett, THOMAS, abolitionist; born in Upper Darby, Pa., Aug. 21, 1783; acquired a fortune in the iron business. In 1807 his sympathy for the slaves was first aroused, and for forty years thereafter he aided escaping slaves so skilfully that when their owners found the fugitives had reached his house they generally abandoned the chase. He was instrumental within the limits of the law in liberating about 3,000 slaves from Maryland, Delaware, and Virginia. Later, however, he was forced to part with his whole fortune in paying damages to the owners of runaway slaves. Afterwards his friends loaned him money to again engage in business, and before his death he accumulated a second fortune. He died in Wilmington, Del., Jan. 23, 1871.

Garrison, JOSEPH FITHIAN, clergyman; born in Fairton, N. J., Jan. 20, 1823; graduated at Princeton College in 1842; became a Protestant Episcopal minister in 1855; later accepted the chair of Liturgics and Canon Law in the Philadelphia Divinity School. His publications include *The Formation of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States,* etc.

Garrison, WENDELL PHILLIPS, journalist; born in Cambridgeport, Mass., June

4, 1840; graduated at Harvard in 1861; became literary editor of *The Nation;* author of *The Benson Family of Newport, R. I.;* joint author of *Life of William Lloyd Garrison.*

Garrison, WILLIAM LLOYD, abolitionist; born in Newburyport, Mass., Dec. 12, 1804; was a shoemaker's apprentice, but finally learned the art of printing, and became a contributor to the press in early life. In all his writings he showed a philanthropic spirit, and a sympathy for the oppressed everywhere. In 1827 he edited the *National Philanthropist,* in Boston; and, as assistant editor of a Baltimore paper, he denounced the taking of a cargo of slaves from that city to New Orleans as "domestic piracy." For this he was fined, and imprisoned forty-nine days, until Arthur Tappan, of New York, paid the fine. On Jan. 1, 1831, he began the publication of his famous *Liberator,* a weekly newspaper and uncompromising opponent of slavery, which was discontinued in 1865, when the result for which he had devoted the best energies of his life had been effected by the Emancipation Proclamation of President Lincoln. Mr. Garrison was a founder (1832) of the American Anti-slavery Society, and was its president from that time until 1865.



WILLIAM LLOYD GARRISON.

Attending, as a delegate, the World's Anti-slavery Convention, in London (1840), he refused to take his seat, because the women delegates from the United States were refused seats in that body. In 1866 he received about $30,000 as a national testimonial from his friends for his arduous labors in the cause of humanity. He died in New York, May 24, 1879. See PHILLIPS, WENDELL.

Lessons of Independence Day.—On July 4, 1842, he delivered the following oration in Boston:

I present myself as the advocate of my enslaved countrymen, at a time when their claims cannot be shuffled out of sight, and on an occasion which entitles me to a respectful hearing in their behalf. If I am asked to prove their title to liberty, my answer is, that the Fourth of July is not a day to be wasted in establishing "self-evident truths." In the name of the God who has made us of one blood, and in whose image we are created; in the name of the Messiah, who came to bind up the broken-hearted, to proclaim liberty to the captives, and the opening of a prison to them that are bound—I demand the immediate emancipation of those who are pining in slavery on the American soil, whether they are fattening for the shambles in Maryland and Virginia, or are wasting, as with a pestilent disease, on the cotton and sugar plantations of Alabama and Louisiana; whether they are male or female, young or old, vigorous or infirm. I make this demand, not for the children merely, but the parents also; not for one, but for all; not with restrictions and limitations, but unconditionally. I assert their perfect equality with ourselves, as a part of the human race, and their inalienable right to liberty and the pursuit of happiness. That this demand is founded in justice, and is therefore irresistible, the whole nation is this day acknowledging, as upon oath at the bar of the world. And not until, by a formal vote, the people repudiate the Declaration of Independence as a false and dangerous instrument, and cease to keep this festival in honor of liberty, as unworthy of note or remembrance; not until they spike every cannon, and muffle every bell, and disband every procession, and quench every bonfire, and gag every orator; not until they brand Washington, and Adams, and Jefferson, and Hancock as fanatics and madmen; not until they place themselves again in the

condition of colonial subserviency to Great Britain, or transform this republic into an imperial government; not until they cease pointing exultingly to Bunker Hill, and the plains of Concord and Lexington; not, in fine, until they deny the authority of God, and proclaim themselves to be destitute of principles and humanity, will I argue the question, as one of doubtful disputation, on an occasion like this, whether our slaves are entitled to the rights and privileges of freemen. That question is settled irrevocably. There is no man to be found, unless he has a brow of brass and a heart of stone, who will dare to contest it on a day like this. A state of vassalage is pronounced, by universal acclamation, to be such as no man, or body of men, ought to submit to for one moment. I therefore tell the American slaves that the time for their emancipation is come; that, their own task-masters being witnesses, they are created equal to the rest of mankind, and possess an inalienable right to liberty; and that no man has a right to hold them in bondage. I counsel them not to fight for their freedom, both on account of the hopelessness of the effort, and because it is rendering evil for evil; but I tell them, not less emphatically, it is not wrong for them to refuse to wear the yoke of slavery any longer. Let them shed no blood—enter into no conspiracies—raise no murderous revolts; but, however and wherever they can break their fetters, God give them courage to do so! And should they attempt to elope from their house of bondage, and come to the North, may each of them find a covert from the search of the spoiler, and an invincible public sentiment to shield them from the grasp of the kidnapper! Success attend them in their flight to Canada, to touch whose monarchical soil insures freedom to every republican slave!

Is this preaching sedition? Sedition against what? Not the lives of the Southern oppressors, for I renew the solemn injunction, "Shed no blood!"—but against unlawful authority, and barbarous usage, and unrequited toil. If slaveholders are still obstinately bent upon plundering and starving their long-suffering victims, let them look well to consequences! To save them from danger, I am not obligated to suppress the truth, or to stop proclaiming liberty "throughout all the land, unto all the inhabitants thereof." No, indeed. There are two important truths, which, as far as practicable, I mean every slave shall be made to understand. The first is, that he has a right to his freedom now; the other is, that this is recognized as a self-evident truth in the Declaration of Independence. Sedition, forsooth. Why, what are the American people doing this day? In theory, maintaining the freedom and equality of the human race; and, in practice, declaring that all tyrants ought to be extirpated from the face of the earth! We are giving to our slaves the following easy sums for resolution: If the principle involved in a threepenny tax on tea justified a seven years' war, how much blood may be lawfully spilt in resisting the principle that one human being has a right to the body and soul of another, on account of the color of the skin? Again, if the impressment of 6,000 American seamen by Great Britain furnished sufficient cause for a bloody struggle with that nation, and the sacrifice of hundreds of millions of capital in self-defence, how many lives may be taken, by way of retribution, on account of the enslavement as chattels of more than 2,000,000 of American laborers?

Oppression and insurrection go hand-in-hand, as cause and effect are allied together. In what age of the world have tyrants reigned with impunity, or the victims of tyranny not resisted unto blood? Besides our grand insurrection against the authority of the mother country, there have been many insurrections, during the last 200 years, in various sections of the land, on the part of the victims of our tyranny, but without the success that attended our own struggle. The last was the memorable one in Southampton, Va., headed by a black patriot, nicknamed, in the contemptuous nomenclature of slavery, "Nat" Turner. The name does not strike the ear so harmoniously as that of Washington, or Lafayette, or Hancock, or Warren; but the name is nothing. It is not in the power of all the slave - holders upon earth to render odious the memory of

that sable chieftain. "Resistance to tyrants is obedience to God" was our Revolutionary motto. We acted upon that motto—what more did Nat Turner? Says George McDuffie: "A people who deliberately submit to oppression, with a full knowledge that they are oppressed, are fit only to be slaves. No tyrant ever made a slave; no community, however small, having the spirit of freedom, ever yet had a master. It does not belong to men to count the costs and calculate the hazards of vindicating their rights and defending their liberties." So reasoned Nat Turner, and acted accordingly. Was he a patriot, or a monster? Do we mean to say to the oppressed of all nations, in the sixty-third year of our independence, and on July 4, that our example in 1776 was a bad one, and ought not to be followed? As a Christian non-resident I, for one, am prepared to say so; but are the people ready to say no chains ought to be broken by the hands of violence, and no blood spilt in defence of inalienable human rights, in any quarter of the globe? If not, then our slaves will peradventure take us at our word and there will be given unto us blood to drink, for we are worthy. Why accuse abolitionists of stirring them up to insurrection? The charge is false; but what if it were true? If any man has a right to fight for liberty, this right equally extends to all men subjected to bondage. In claiming this right for themselves, the American people necessarily concede it to all mankind. If, therefore, they are found tyrannizing over any part of the human race, they voluntarily seal their own death-warrant, and confess that they deserve to perish.

"What are the banners ye exalt?—the deeds
That raised your fathers' pyramid of fame?
Ye show the wound that still in history bleeds,
And talk exulting of the patriot's name—
Then, when your words have waked a kindred flame
And slaves behold the freedom ye adore,
And deeper feel their sorrow and their shame,
Ye double all the fetters that they wore,
And press them down to earth, till hope exults no more!"

But, it seems, abolitionists have the audacity to tell the slaves, not only of their rights, but also of their wrongs! That must be a rare piece of information to them, truly. Tell a man who has just had his back flayed by the lash, till a pool of blood is at his feet, that somebody has flogged him! Tell him who wears an iron collar upon his neck, and a chain upon his heels, that his limbs are fettered, as if he knew it not! Tell those who receive no compensation for their toil that they are unrighteously defrauded! In spite of all their whippings, and deprivations, and forcible separations, like cattle in the market, it seems that the poor slaves realized a heaven of blissful ignorance, until their halcyon dreams were disturbed by the pictorial representations and exciting descriptions of the abolitionists! What! have not the slaves eyes? Have they not hands, organs, dimensions, senses, affections, passions? Are they not fed with the same food, hurt with the same weapons, subject to the same diseases, healed by the same means, warmed and cooled by the same winter and summer, as freemen are? "If we prick them, do they not bleed? If we tickle them, do they not laugh? If we poison them, do they not die? And if we wrong them, will they not be revenged?"

"For the slave-holders," we are told, "there is no peace, by night or by day; but every moment is a moment of alarm, and their enemies are of their own household." It is the hand of a friendly vindicator, moreover, that rolls up the curtain! What but the most atrocious tyranny on the part of the masters, and the most terrible sufferings on the part of the slaves, can account for such alarm, such insecurity, such apprehensions that "even a more horrible catastrophe" than that of arson and murder may transpire nightly? It requires all the villany that has ever been charged upon Southern oppressors, and all the wretchedness that has ever been ascribed to the oppressed, to work out so fearful a result—and that the statement is true, the most distinguished slave-holders have more than once certified. That it is true, the entire code of slave laws—whips and yokes and fetters—the nightly patrol—restriction of locomotion on the part of the slaves, except with passes—muskets, pistols, and bowie-knives in the bed-chambers during

the hours of rest—the fear of intercommunication of colored freemen and the slaves—the prohibition of even alphabetical instruction, under pains and penalties, to the victims of wrong—the refusal to admit their testimony against persons of a white complexion—the wild consternation and furious gnashing of teeth exhibited by the chivalric oppressors at the sight of an anti-slavery publication—the rewards offered for the persons of abolitionists—the whipping of Dresser, and the murder of Lovejoy—the plundering of the United States mail—the application of lynch law to all who are found sympathizing with the slave population as men, south of the Potomac—the reign of mobocracy in place of constitutional law—and, finally, the Pharaoh-like conduct of the masters, in imposing new burdens and heavier fetters upon their down-trodden vassals—all these things, together with a long catalogue of others, prove that the abolitionists have not "set aught down in malice" against the South; that they have exaggerated nothing. They warn us, as with miraculous speech, that, unless justice be speedily done, a bloody catastrophe is to come, which will roll a gory tide of desolation through the land, and may, peradventure, blot out the memory of the scenes of Santo Domingo. They are the premonitory rumblings of a great earthquake—the lava token of a heaving volcano! God grant that, while there is time and a way to escape, we may give heed to these signals of impending retribution!

One thing I know full well. Calumniated, abhorred, persecuted as the abolitionists have been, they constitute the body-guard of the slave-holders, not to strengthen their opposition, but to shield them from the vengeance of their slaves.

Instead of seeking their destruction, abolitionists are endeavoring to save them from midnight conflagration and sudden death, by beseeching them to remove the cause of insurrection; and by holding out to slaves the hope of a peaceful deliverance. We do not desire that any should perish. Having a conscience void of offence in this matter, and cherishing a love for our race which is "without partiality and without hypocrisy," no impeachment of our motives, or assault upon our character, can disturb the serenity of our minds; nor can any threats of violence, or prospect of suffering, deter us from our purpose. That we manifest a bad spirit is not to be denied on the testimony of the Southern slave-driver, or his Northern apologist. That our philanthropy is exclusive, in the favor of but one party, is not proved by our denouncing the oppressor, and sympathizing with his victim. That we are seeking popularity, is not apparent from our advocating an odious and unpopular cause, and vindicating, at the loss of our reputation, the rights of a people who are reckoned among the offscouring of all things. That our motives are disinterested, they who swim with the popular current, and partake of the gains of unrighteousness, and plunder the laborers of their wages, are not competent to determine. That our language is uncharitable and un-Christian, they who revile us as madmen, fanatics, incendiaries, traitors, cut-throats, etc., cannot be allowed to testify. That our measures are violent is not demonstrated by the fact that we wield no physical weapons, pledge ourselves not to countenance insurrection, and present the peaceful front of non-resistance to those who put our lives in peril. That our object is chimerical or unrighteous is not substantiated by the fact of its being commenced by Almighty God, and supported by His omnipotence, as well as approved by the wise and good in every age and in all countries. If the charge, so often brought against us, be true, that our temper is rancorous, and our spirit turbulent, how has it happened that, during so long a conflict with slavery, not a single instance can be found in which an abolitionist has committed a breach of the peace, or violated any law of his country? If it be true that we are not actuated by the highest principles of rectitude, nor governed by the spirit of forbearance, I ask once more how it has come to pass that, when our meetings have been repeatedly broken up by lawless men, our property burned in the streets, our dwellings sacked, our persons brutally assailed, and our lives put in imminent peril, we have refused to lift a finger in self-defence, or to maintain our rights in the spirit of worldly patriotism?

If it must be so, let the defenders of slavery still have all the brick-bats, bowie-knives, and pistols, which the land can furnish; but let us possess all the arguments, facts, warnings, and promises which insure the final triumph of our holy cause.

Nothing is easier than for the abolitionists, if they were so disposed, as it were in the twinkling of an eye, to "cry havoc and let slip the dogs of war," and fill this whole land with the horrors of a civil and servile commotion. It is only for them to hoist but one signal, to kindle but a single torch, to give but a single bugle-call, and the 3,000,000 of colored victims of oppression, both bond and free, would start up as one man, and make the American soil drunk with the blood of the slain. How fearful and tremendous is the power, for good and evil, thus lodged in their hands! Besides being stimulated by a desire to redress the wrongs of their enslaved countrymen, they could plead in extenuation of their conduct for resorting to arms (and their plea would be valid, according to the theory and practice of republicanism), that they had cruel wrongs of their own to avenge, and sacred rights to secure, inasmuch as they are thrust out beyond the pale of the Constitution, excluded from one-half of the Union by the fiat of the lynch code, deprived of the protection of the law, and branded as traitors, because they dare to assert that God wills all men to be free! Now, I frankly put it to the understandings of Southern men, whether, in view of these considerations, it is adding anything to their safety, or postponing the much-dreaded catastrophe a single hour — whether, in fact, it is not increasing their peril, and rendering an early explosion more probable—for them to persevere in aggravating the condition of their slaves, by tightening their chains and increasing the heavy burdens —or wreaking their malice upon the free people of color or in adopting every base and unlawful measure to wound the character, destroy the property, and jeopard the lives of abolitionists, and thus leaving no stone unturned to inflame them to desperation? All this Southern men have done, and are still doing, as if animated by an insane desire to be destroyed.

The object of the Anti-slavery Association is not to destroy men's lives, despots though they be, but to prevent the spilling of human blood. It is to enlighten the understanding, arouse the conscience, affect the heart. We rely upon moral power alone for success. The ground upon which we stand belongs to no sect or party—it is holy ground. Whatever else may divide us in opinion, in this one thing we are agreed, that slave-holding is a crime under all circumstances, and ought to be immediately and unconditionally abandoned. We enforce upon no man either a political or a religious test as a condition of membership; but at the same time we expect every abolitionist to carry out his principles consistently, impartially, faithfully, in whatever station he may be called to act, or wherever conscience may lead him to go. I hail this union of hearts as a bright omen that all is not lost. To the slave-holding South it is more terrible than a military army with banners. It is indeed a sublime spectacle to see men forgetting their jarring creeds and party affinities, and embracing each other as one and indivisible in a struggle in behalf of our common Christianity and our common nature. God grant that no root of bitterness may spring up to divide us asunder! "United we stand, divided we fall," and if we fall what remains for our country but a fearful looking for of judgment and of fiery indignation that shall consume it? Fall we cannot if our trust be in the Lord of Hosts and in the power of His might—not in man, nor any body of men. Divided we cannot be if we truly "remember them that are in bonds as bound with them," and love our neighbors as ourselves.

Genuine abolitionism is not a hobby got up for personal or associated aggrandizement; it is not a political ruse; it is not a spasm of sympathy which lasts but for a moment, leaving the system weak and worn; it is not a fever of enthusiasm; it is not the fruit of fanaticism; it is not a spirit of faction. It is of Heaven, not of men. It lives in the heart as a vital principle. It is an essential part of Christianity, and aside from it there can be no humanity. Its scope is not confined to the slave population of the United

States, but embraces mankind. Opposition cannot weary it out, force cannot put it down, fire cannot consume it. It is the spirit of Jesus, who was sent "to bind up the broken-hearted, to proclaim liberty to the captives, and the opening of the prison to them that are bound; to proclaim the acceptable year of the Lord, and the day of vengeance of our God." Its principles are self-evident, its measures rational, its purposes merciful and just. It cannot be diverted from the path of duty, though all earth and hell oppose; for it is lifted far above all earth-born fear. When it fairly takes possession of the soul, you may trust the soul-carrier anywhere, that he will not be recreant to humanity. In short, it is a life, not an impulse—a quenchless flame of philanthropy, not a transient spark of sentimentalism.

Will it be retorted that we dare not resist—that we are cowards? Cowards! no man believes it. They are the dastards who maintain might makes right; whose arguments are brick-bats and rotten eggs; whose weapons are dirks and bowie-knives; and whose code of justice is lynch law. A love of liberty, instead of unnerving men, makes them intrepid, heroic, invincible. It was so at Thermopylæ—it was so on Bunker Hill.

Who so tranquil, who so little agitated, in storm or sunshine, as the abolitionists? But what consternation, what running to and fro like men at their wits' end, what trepidation, what anguish of spirit, on the part of their enemies! How Southern slave-mongers quake and tremble at the faintest whisperings of an abolitionist? For, truly, "the thief doth fear each bush an officer." Oh! the great poet of nature is right—

> "Thrice is he arm'd that hath his quarrel just;
> And he but naked, though lock'd up in steel,
> Whose conscience with injustice is corrupted."

A greater than Shakespeare certifies the "wicked flee when no man pursueth; but the righteous are bold as a lion." In this great contest of right against wrong, of liberty against slavery, who are the wicked, if they be not those who, like vultures and vampires, are gorging themselves with human blood; if they be not the plunderers of the poor, the spoilers of the defenceless, the traffickers in "slaves and the souls of men"? Who are the cowards, if not those who shrink from manly argumentation, the light of truth, the concussion of mind, and a fair field; if not those whose prowess, stimulated by whiskey potations or the spirit of murder, grows rampant as the darkness of night approaches; whose shouts and yells are savage and fiend-like; who furiously exclaim: "Down with free discussion! down with the liberty of the press! down with the right of petition! down with constitutional law!"; who rifle mail-bags, throw type and printing-presses into the river, burn public halls dedicated to "virtue, liberty, and independence," and assassinate the defenders of inalienable human rights?

And who are the righteous, in this case, if they be not those who will "have no fellowship with the unfruitful words of darkness, but rather reprove them"; who maintain that the laborer is worthy of his hire, that the marriage institution is sacred, that slavery is a system cursed of God, that tyrants are the enemies of mankind, and that immediate emancipation should be given to all who are pining in bondage? Who are the truly brave, if not those who demand for truth and error alike free speech, a free press, an open arena, the right of petition, and no quarter? If not those, who, instead of skulking from the light, stand forth in the noontide blaze of day, and challenge their opponents to emerge from their wolf-like dens, that, by a rigid examination, it may be seen who has stolen the wedge of gold, in whose pocket are the thirty pieces of silver, and whose garments are stained with the blood of innocence?

The charge, then, that we are beside ourselves, that we are both violent and cowardly, is demonstrated to be false, in a signal manner. I thank God that the weapons of our warfare are not carnal, but spiritual. I thank Him that, by His grace, and by our deep concern for the oppressed, we have been enabled, in Christian magnanimity, to pity and pray for our enemies, and to overcome their evil with good. Overcome, I say: not merely

suffered unresistingly, but conquered gloriously.

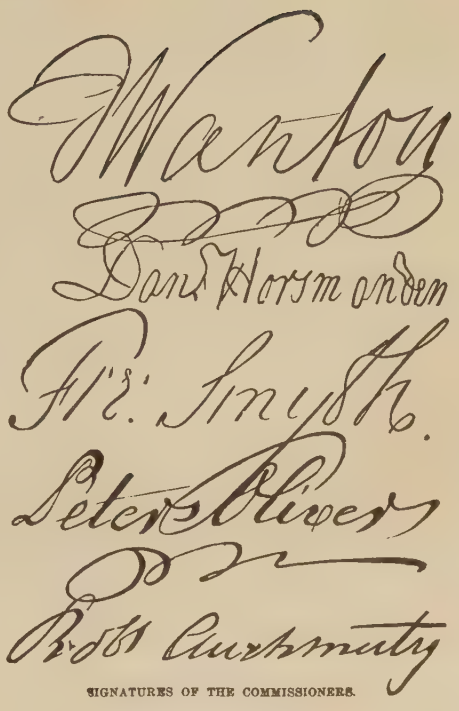
Gaspé, PHILIP IGNATIUS, military officer; born in Canada, April 5, 1714; joined the army in 1727; served in a campaign against the Natchez and Chicache Indians in 1739; took part in the defeat of Washington at Fort Necessity; led the Canadian militia when Fort Carillon was attacked by the English, and was largely instrumental in their defeat. He died in Canada, June 19, 1787.

BURNING OF THE GASPEE.

Gaspee, an armed schooner in the British revenue service, which greatly annoyed the American navigators in Narraganset Bay by her commander haughtily demanding the lowering of their flags whenever they passed her, in token of submission. They often disobeyed. For this disobedience a Providence sloop was chased by the schooner. The former, by taking a peculiar course, caused the latter to run aground upon a low, sandy point (ever since known as Gaspee Point) on the west side of Narraganset Bay. The same night (June 9, 1772), sixty-four armed men went down from Providence in boats, captured the people on board the *Gaspee*, and burned the vessel. A large reward was offered for the discovery of the perpetrators (who were well known in Providence), but they were not betrayed. Joseph Wanton, the royal governor of Rhode Island, issued a proclamation ordering diligent search for the perpetrators of the act. Admiral Montague made endeavors towards the same end, and the home government offered a reward of $5,000 for the leader, with the promise of a pardon if the informer should be an accomplice. Not one of the men betrayed their trusted leader, ABRAHAM WHIPPLE (*q. v.*), afterwards a commodore in the Continental navy. When, subsequently,

the colonists were at war with Great Britain, the act of Captain Whipple was avowed, and Sir James Wallace, in command of a British ship-of-war in Narraganset Bay, wrote as follows to the perpetrator of the act: "You, Abraham Whipple, on June 9, 1772, burned his Majesty's vessel, the *Gaspee*, and I will hang you at the yard-arm." Whipple coolly replied: "Sir, always catch your man before you hang him." A ballad was written at the time, containing fifty-eight lines of doggerel verse, which ended as follows:

"Now, for to find these people out,
King George has offered very stout,
One thousand pounds to find out one
That wounded William Duddington.
One thousand more he says he'll spare
For those who say the sheriff's were.
One thousand more there doth remain
For to find out the leader's name;
Likewise five hundred pounds per man
For any one of all the clan.
But, let him try his utmost skill,
I'm apt to think he never will
Find out any of those hearts of gold,
Though he should offer fifty-fold."



SIGNATURES OF THE COMMISSIONERS.

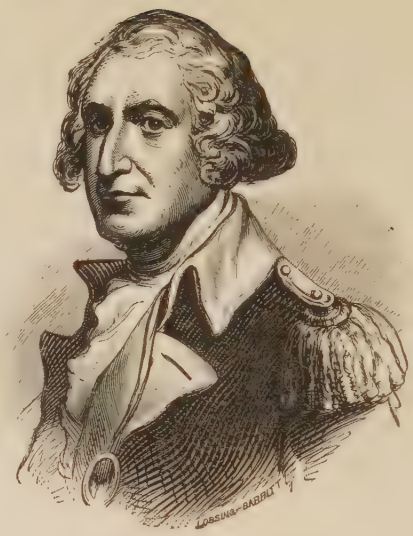
After the destruction of the *Gaspee*, a commission, composed of Admiral Montague, the vice-admiralty judge at Boston, the chief-justices of Massachusetts (Peter Oliver), New York (D. Horsmanden), and New Jersey (F. Smyth), and the governor of Rhode Island (J. Wanton), met at Newport to inquire into the affair. Robert Auchmuty took the place of Montague. The commissioners were notified that there had been no neglect of duty or connivance on the part of the provincial government, and it was intimated that this special court was unnecessary and alarming. The Assembly of Rhode Island met at East Greenwich to watch

GASPEE POINT.

the commissioners, and Governor Wanton laid before it his instructions to arrest offenders, and send them to England for trial. Chief-Justice Stephen Hopkins asked the Assembly how he should act. They left it to his discretion, for they were assured of his patriotism and sound judgment. "Then," said Hopkins, in the presence of both Houses, "for the purpose of transportation for trial I will neither apprehend any person by my own order, nor suffer any executive officer in the colony to do it." The commissioners adjourned without eliciting any positive knowledge of the persons who destroyed the vessel. See BROWN, JOHN.

Gaston, WILLIAM, jurist; born at Newbern, N. C., Sept. 19, 1778; graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1796, and was admitted to the bar in 1798, when he soon became the leading lawyer in his State. Serving in his State legislature, he was elected to Congress in 1812, and remained in that body until 1817. The laws and judicial organization of his State bear marks of his wisdom. He was judge of the Supreme Court of North Carolina from 1834 till his death, in Raleigh, N. C., Jan. 23, 1844. Judge Gaston was an advocate of free suffrage for colored men.

Gates, HORATIO, military officer; born in Maldon, England, in 1728; was a godson of Horace Walpole; entered the British army in his youth, and rose rapidly to the rank of major; came to America; was severely wounded at Braddock's defeat (1755); and was aide to General Monckton in the expedition against Martinique in 1762. After the peace he bought an estate in Virginia, and when the Revolutionary War broke out Congress appointed him (June, 1775) adjutant-general of the Continental army, with the rank of brigadier-general. In 1776–77 he was twice in command of the Northern army, having, through intrigue, displaced General Schuyler. He gained undeserved honors as commander of the troops that defeated and captured Burgoyne and his army in the fall of 1777. He soon afterwards intrigued for the position of Washington as commander-in-chief, using his power as president of the board of war for the purpose, but ignominiously failed. In June, 1780, he was



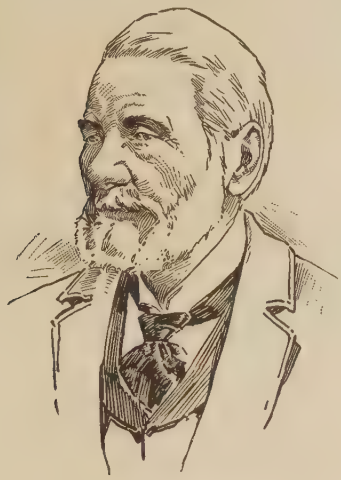
HORATIO GATES.

made commander of the Southern Department, but made a disastrous campaign, his army being utterly defeated and routed by Cornwallis near Camden, S. C., in August, 1780. This defeat terminated Gates's military career. He was removed from command and suspended from service, but was finally vindicated, and reinstated in command in 1782. He retired to his estate in Virginia, and in 1790 made his residence in New York City, having first emancipated all his slaves, and provided for such of them as could not take care of themselves. He was presented with the freedom of the city of New York, and elected to the State legislature, but declined to serve. He died in New York City, April 10, 1806.

Gates, SIR THOMAS, colonial governor; born in England in the sixteenth century, and lived during a part of the seventeenth; left England with 500 settlers for the Virginia colony in 1609. The expedition consisted of ten ships, three of which were lost during the voyage, which did not end till May 24, 1610. Gates soon after returned to England to report the affairs of the colony, and collected 300 new emigrants, with whom he arrived in Virginia in August, 1611. He then became governor of the colony, but returned finally to England in 1614.

Gates, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Massachusetts in 1788; graduated at West Point in 1806; served throughout the War of 1812, the Florida War, and the war with Mexico. He was retired from active service in 1863, and died in New York City, Oct. 7, 1868.

Gatling, RICHARD JORDAN, inventor; born in Hertford county, N. C., Sept. 12, 1818. His first invention was a screw



RICHARD JORDAN GATLING.

for propelling water-craft. Later he designed a machine for sowing rice, and, on removing to St. Louis in 1844, adapted it to sowing wheat in drills. In 1861 he conceived the idea of his revolving battery gun. This was first manufactured in 1862, at Indianapolis. Subsequently twelve were made and used on the James River, Va., by General Butler. In 1866 Gatling further improved this invention, and after satisfactory trials at Washington and Fort Monroe the Gatling gun was adopted by the United States government. It is now in use also in nearly all European countries. In 1886 he invented a new gun-metal, composed of steel and aluminum. Later Congress voted him $40,000 for proof experiments in a new method of casting cannon. He died in New York, Feb. 26, 1903.

Gaul, GILBERT WILLIAM, artist; born in Jersey City, March 31, 1855; elected associate of the National Academy of Design in 1879, and academician in 1882. He has made a specialty of historical paintings, and has contributed many drawings illustrating the wars of the United States to the illustrated periodicals.

Gay, EBENEZER, clergyman; born in Dedham, Mass., Aug. 26, 1696; graduated at Harvard in 1714; became pastor of the Congregational church at Hingham, Mass., which he served for seventy years. During the Revolution he sympathized with the British. The sermon which he preached upon the completion of his eighty-fifth year was published in America and reprinted in England. It is generally known as *The Old Man's Calendar*. He died in Hingham, Mass., in 1787.

Gay, PICARD DU, explorer; born in France and lived in the seventeenth century; was with Michael Ako and Father Hennepin on an expedition to discover the sources of the Mississippi River. On April 11, 1680, they reached Wisconsin, and not long afterwards discovered the cataract which Hennepin named the "Falls of St. Anthony." They remained in this district about three months, and then returned to Canada by the way of the St. Lawrence River.

Gay, SYDNEY HOWARD, historian; born in Hingham, Mass., in 1814; began the study of law, but abandoned it and connected himself with the anti-slavery movement; was editor of the *Anti-slavery Standard* in 1844–57; managing editor of the New York *Tribune* for some years; and subsequently was connected with the Chicago *Tribune* and the New York *Evening Post*. He wrote a *History of the United States* (4 volumes), to which William Cullen Bryant furnished a preface, and also many valuable suggestions. He died on Staten Island, N. Y., June 25, 1888.

Gayarré, CHARLES ÉTIENNE ARTHUR, historian; born in New Orleans, La., Jan. 9, 1805; studied law in Philadelphia; admitted to the New Orleans bar in 1830; served his State in various capacities until 1835, when he was elected to the United States Senate, but was unable to take his seat on account of ill health. He was abroad eight years, and on his return was again sent to the State legislature; subsequently appointed secretary of state. Among his works are *Louisiana as a*

French Colony; Louisiana under the Spanish Domination; Louisiana: Its Colonization, History and Romance; A Complete History of Louisiana, etc. He died in New Orleans, La., Feb. 11, 1895.

Geary, JOHN WHITE, military officer; born in Mount Pleasant, Westmoreland co., Pa., Dec. 30, 1819; became a civil engineer, and served as lieutenant-colonel of a Pennsylvania regiment of volunteers in the war with Mexico, wherein he was wounded, and for gallant services was made colonel of his regiment. He was first commander of the city of Mexico after its capture. He went to San Francisco in 1848, and was the first mayor of that city. Returning to Pennsylvania, he was appointed territorial governor of Kansas in July, 1856, an office he held one year. Early in 1861 he raised and equipped the 28th regiment of Pennsylvania volunteers. In the spring of 1862 he was promoted brigadier-general, and did good service throughout the war, becoming, at the end of Sherman's march from Atlanta to the sea, military governor of Savannah and brevet major-general. In 1866 he was elected governor of Pennsylvania, and held the office till within two weeks of his death, in Harrisburg, Feb. 8, 1873.

Geddes, JAMES LORRAINE, military officer; born in Edinburgh, Scotland, March 19, 1827; emigrated to Canada in 1837; subsequently returned to the continent and enlisted in the Indian army, serving in the Punjab campaign; emigrated to Iowa in 1857; at the outbreak of the Civil War enlisted as a private, but soon received a commission, and ultimately was made brevet brigadier-general of volunteers. He wrote a number of war songs which became very popular, among them *The Stars and Stripes* and *The Soldier's Battle-prayer*. He died in Ames, Ia., Feb. 21, 1887.

Geiger, EMILY, heroine; born in South Carolina about 1760. While General Greene was pursuing Lord Rawdon towards Orangeburg, he wished to send a message to General Sumter, then on the Santee, to take a position in front of the enemy and impede his flight. The errand

EMILY GEIGER'S ARREST.

was a most perilous one, and no man in the army was bold enough to undertake it, for the Tories were everywhere on the alert. Emily Geiger, a girl of eighteen years of age, volunteered to carry the letter to Sumter. Greene told her its contents, so that, in case she found it necessary to destroy it, the message might be delivered orally. The girl mounted a fleet horse, crossed the Wateree at the Camden ferry, and, while passing through a dry swamp, was arrested by some Tory scouts. As she came from the direction of Greene's army, her errand was suspected. She was taken to a house at the edge of a swamp, and a woman employed to search her. When left alone, she ate up Greene's letter, piece by piece, and no evidence being found against her, she was released with many apologies. She passed on to Sumter's camp, and very soon he and Marion were co-operating with Greene. Emily afterwards married a rich planter on the Congaree.

Gelelemend, or Kill-Buck, a chief of the Delaware Indians; born in Pennsylvania in 1737. During the Revolutionary War he did all in his power to keep his people neutral, a stand which aroused the animosity of those in his tribe who had joined the English. In 1788 he joined the Moravian mission in Salem, O., receiving the name of William Henry. He died in Goshen, O., in 1811.

Genealogies, AMERICAN. In recent years, and especially since the organization of the various patriotic societies, there has been a much larger attention paid to the gathering and perfecting of family records than ever before. The chief present desire is confined in a large measure to an ambition to become allied to one or more of the patriotic orders, and this desire has become so widely spread and deep-rooted that the public libraries of the country have found it necessary to assemble county histories and genealogical works in one place for the convenience of this class of investigators. The same desire has also increased the publication of family records. The genealogical literature of the United States is now exceedingly voluminous. One of the earliest and most important publications of this character is Savage's *New England Genealogies.*

General Armstrong, THE, a noted privateer, fitted out in New York in 1812. The merchants of New York fitted out no less than twenty-six fast-sailing privateers and letters-of-marque within 120 days after the declaration of war (1812), carrying about 200 pieces of artillery, and manned by over 2,000 seamen. Among the most noted of these privateers was the *General Armstrong,* a moderate-sized schooner, mounting a "Long Tom" 42-pounder and eighteen carronades. Her complement was 140 men; her first commander was Captain Barnard; her second, Capt. G. R. Champlin. Early in March, 1813, while Champlin was cruising off the Surinam River, on the coast of South America, he gave chase to the British sloop-of-war *Coquette,* mounting twenty-seven guns and manned by 126 men and boys. They engaged in conflict between nine and ten o'clock (March 11, 1813). Supposing his antagonist to be a British letter-of-marque, Champlin ran the *Armstrong* down upon her, with the intention of boarding her. When it was too late, Champlin discovered that she was a heavier vessel than he suspected. They poured heavy shot into each other, and for a while the fight was very obstinate, within pistol-shot distance. Champlin was wounded and his vessel severely bruised, but, getting free from the *Coquette* by a vigorous use of sweeps, the *Armstrong* escaped under a heavy fire from her antagonist. The Tammany Society of New York gave the captain an elegant sword, and voted thanks to his companions in the fight. In 1814 the *General Armstrong* was under the command of Capt. Samuel C. Reid, and in September she was in the harbor of Fayal, one of the islands of the Azores, belonging to Portugal. It was a neutral port, and Reid did not expect to be disturbed there by British vessels. He was mistaken.

On the 26th Commodore Lloyd appeared off the harbor with his flag-ship, the *Plantagenet,* seventy-four guns; the frigate *Rota,* forty-four, Captain Somerville; and the brig *Carnation,* eighteen, Captain Bentham; each with a full complement of men. The *Armstrong* had only seven guns and ninety men, including her officers. In violation of the laws and usages

of neutrality, Lloyd sent into the harbor, at eight o'clock in the evening, four large and well-armed launches, manned by about forty men each. At that time Reid, suspecting mischief, was warping his vessel under the guns of the castle. The moon was shining brightly. The barges and the privateer opened fire almost simultaneously, and the launches were driven off with heavy loss. At midnight fourteen launches were sent in, manned by about 500 men. A terrible conflict ensued, which lasted forty minutes, when the launches were again repulsed, with a loss of 120 killed and 130 wounded. At daylight (Sept. 27) a third attack was made by the brig *Carnation*, which opened heavily, but was soon so cut up by the well-directed guns of the *Armstrong* that she hastily withdrew. The privateer was also much damaged, and it being evident that she could not endure a fourth attack, Captain Reid directed her to be scuttled, to prevent her falling into the hands of the British. She was then abandoned, when the British boarded her and set her on fire. While the British lost over 300 men in the three attacks, the *Armstrong* lost only two men killed and seven wounded during the ten hours.

To Captain Reid and his brave men is justly due the credit of saving New Orleans from capture. Lloyd's squadron was a part of the expedition then gathering at Jamaica for the invasion of Louisiana. The object of the attack on the *Armstrong* was to capture her, and make her a useful auxiliary in the work. She so crippled her assailants that they did not reach Jamaica until ten days later than the expedition intended to sail from there. It had waited for Lloyd, and when it approached New Orleans Jackson had made ample arrangements to receive the invaders. Had they arrived ten days sooner the city must have fallen. The State of New York gave Captain Reid thanks and a sword, and he was greeted with enthusiasm on his return to the United States. The Portuguese government demanded and received from the British an apology for the violation of neutrality, and restitution for the destruction of Portuguese property at Fayal during the action. That government also demanded satisfaction and indemnification for the destruction of the American vessel in their neutral port. This was refused, and neither the owners of the vessel nor their heirs ever received indemnification for their losses either from Great Britain or Portugal.

Genest, or **Genet,** Edmond Charles, diplomatist; born in Versailles, France, Jan. 8, 1765. His literary talent was early developed. At the age of twelve years he received from the King of Swe-

EDMOND CHARLES GENEST.

den a gold medal for a translation of the history of Eric XIV. into Swedish, with notes by himself. He was a brother of the celebrated Madame Campan, and was brought up in the French Court; yet he was a republican. Attached to the embassies of Berlin, Vienna, London, and St. Petersburg, he maintained his republican bias, and on his return from the Russian Court (1792) was appointed minister to the United States. He had already been made adjutant-general of the armies of France and minister to Holland by the revolutionists, and employed in revolutionizing Geneva and annexing it to France. He arrived at Charleston, S. C., April 9, 1793. He was received with open arms by the Republican, or Democratic, party. He was disposed to treat the United States government with contempt, believing the people would

not sustain it in its coldness towards the French revolutionists. He came with blank commissions for naval and military service, and before he proceeded to the seat of government to present his credentials he fitted out two privateers at Charleston to prey on British commerce, and gave authority to every French consul in America to constitute himself a court of admiralty to dispose of prizes brought into American ports by French cruisers. One of these vessels, *L'Embuscade*, went prowling up the coast, seizing several small vessels, and finally capturing a British merchantman within the capes of the Delaware, when she proceeded in triumph to Philadelphia, where she was received with acclamations of joy by the excited people. Upon the bow of *L'Embuscade*, her foremast, and her stern liberty-caps were conspicuous, and the British colors were reversed in the prize, with the French colors flying above them. Fourteen days later Genest arrived by land at Philadelphia, where, according to preconcert, a number of citizens met him at the Schuylkill and escorted him into the city, while cannon roared and church bells rang out merry peals of welcome. There he received addresses from various societies, and so anxious were his admirers to do homage to the representative of the authors of the Reign of Terror in France that they invited him to a public dinner before he had presented his credentials to the President of the United States.

Genest presented his credentials to Washington in person (April 19, 1793), and found himself in an atmosphere of the most profound dignity. He felt his own littleness as a mere political enthusiast while standing before the representative of true democracy in America, and of the soundest principles of the American republic. He withdrew from the audience abashed and subdued. He had heard expressions of sincere regard for the people of France that touched the sensibilities of his heart, and he had felt, in the courtesy and severe simplicity and frankness of the President's manner, wholly free from effervescent enthusiasm, a withering rebuke, not only of the adulators in public places, but also of his own pretensions, aspirations, and offensive conduct. Once out of the presence of Washington, he became the same defiant champion of the "rights of the people," affecting to be shocked at the evidences of monarchical sympathies in the President's house. He there saw a bust of Louis XVI., and declared its presence in the house of the President of the United States was an "insult to France," and he was "astonished" to find that relatives of Lafayette had lately been admitted to the presence of the President. His feelings were speedily soothed in a great banquet-hall of his republican friends, May 23, 1793, where his ears were greeted with the Marseilles Hymn, and his eyes delighted with a "tree of Liberty" on the table. His heart was made glad by having the red cap of Liberty placed on his own head first and then upon the head of each guest, while the wearer, under the inspiration of its symbolism, uttered some patriotic sentiment. At dinner, at which the governor of Pennsylvania (Mifflin) was present, a roasted pig received the name of the murdered French King, and the head, severed from his body, was carried around to each of the guests, who, after placing the cap of Liberty on his own head, pronounced the word "tyrant," and proceeded to mangle with his knife that of the poor pig. One of the Republican taverns in Philadelphia displayed as a sign a revolting picture of the mutilated and blood-stained corpse of Queen Marie Antoinette.

This madness ran a short course, and its victims became heartily ashamed of it. Genest took this for a genuine and settled feeling, and acted upon it. Meanwhile the insulted government took most dignified action. The captured British merchantman was restored to its owners, and the privateers were ordered out of American waters. Orders were sent to the collectors at all American ports to seize all vessels fitted out as privateers, and to prevent the sale of any prize captured by such vessels. Chief-Justice Jay declared it to be the duty of grand juries to present all persons guilty of such violation of the laws of nations with respect to any of the belligerent powers. The French ambassador and his friends were greatly irritated. He protested, and the Secretary of State (Jefferson), who had favored the enthusiasm of Genest's reception, finding he had

a troublesome friend on his hands, plainly told Genest that by commissioning privateers he had violated the sovereignty of the United States. With offensive pertinacity, Genest denied this doctrine as contrary to right, justice, and the laws of nations, and threatened to "appeal from the President to the people"; and in this the Republican newspapers sustained him. Secret Democratic societies which had been formed became more bold and active, and Genest, mistaking the popular clamor for the deliberate voice of the nation, actually undertook to fit out a privateer at Philadelphia, in defiance of the government, during the President's absence at Mount Vernon. It was a vessel captured by *L'Embuscade*, and Genest named her *The Little Democrat*.

Governor Mifflin, like Jefferson, had become sick of the "Citizen," and he interfered. Genest would not heed his threats nor the persuasion of Jefferson. He denounced the President as unfaithful to the wishes of the people, and resolved to force him to call Congress together. Washington, on his return to Philadelphia, and informed of the insolence of Genest, exclaimed, "Is the minister of the French republic to set the acts of the government at defiance with impunity?" His cabinet answered "No!" The most exacting country could not counsel longer forbearance, and the French government was requested, July, 1793, to recall its minister; and it was done. There was a reaction in the public mind towards a more patriotic attitude. The insolence of Genest had shocked the national pride. On April 22, 1793, the President issued a proclamation of neutrality, which the radical Democrats denounced as an "edict of royalty." Genest—succeeded by M. Fouchet, a man equally indiscreet—did not leave the country, as he did not think it prudent to return. Marrying the daughter of Gov. George Clinton, he became a naturalized citizen of the United States. He was twice married, his second wife being a daughter of Mr. Osgood, the first Postmaster-General under the new Constitution. Fond of agriculture, he took great interest in its pursuit; and his last illness was occasioned by attendance at a meeting of an agricultural society of which he was the president. He was known as "Citizen Genest," a title assumed by the French revolutionists, and imitated by their American admirers. He died in Schodak, N. Y., July 14, 1834.

Geneva Convention. See RED CROSS.

Geneva Tribunal of Arbitration. See ALABAMA CLAIMS.

Gentry, MEREDITH POINDEXTER, legislator; born in North Carolina, Sept. 15, 1809; removed with his father to Tennessee in 1813; elected to the State legislature in 1835; to Congress in 1839. When his State seceded he entered the Confederate Congress. He died at Nashville, Tenn., Nov. 2, 1866.

Geographical Society, AMERICAN, an organization established in 1852. It aims to encourage geographical exploration and discovery; to examine and spread new geographical information; and to found a suitable place in New York where accurate information of every part of the globe may be obtained. Its headquarters are at 11 West Twenty-ninth street, New York City. Its officers in 1900 were: President, Seth Low; vice-presidents, W. H. H. Moore, Gen. Egbert L. Viele, C. C. Tiffany, D.D.; corresponding secretaries—foreign, William Libbey; domestic, Chandler Robbins; recording secretary, Anton A. Raven. The membership in 1900 was 1,200.

Geological Society of America, founded in 1888. Officers: President, George M. Dawson, Canadian Geological Survey, Ottawa, Canada; secretary, H. L. Fairchild, University of Rochester; treasurer, I. C. White; editor of the *Bulletin of the Geological Society of America*, J. Stanley Brown. In 1900 there were 245 fellows. The entrance fee is $10, and the annual dues $10.

Geological Survey of the United States, a branch of the Department of the Interior, founded in 1879, when it included only the geological examination of the Territories; but in 1881 it was enlarged so as to comprise the entire country, and its corps were gradually increased till the survey became the most important of all governmental organizations for the purpose of geological examination. The director of the survey has charge of the classification of the public lands, the examination of the geological structures, mineral resources, and

products of the national domain, and of the survey of the forest reserves. In 1900 the chief officers were: Director, Charles D. Wolcott; Division of Hydrography, chief, F. H. Newell; Division of Mineral Resources, chief, David T. Day; Division of Physical and Chemical Researches, chief, G. F. Becker; Division of Topography, Forest Reserves, Henry Gannett.

George (Lewis) **I.**, King of Great Britain, born in Osnabrück, Hanover, May 28, 1660; eldest son of Ernest Augustus, Elector of Hanover, and the first sovereign of the Hanoverian line. His mother was Sophia, daughter of James I. of England. In 1681 he went to England to seek the hand of his cousin, the Princess Anne (afterwards Queen), in marriage, but, being ordered by his father not to proceed in the business, he returned, and married his cousin Sophia Dorothea. By act of the convention of Parliament in 1689, and by Parliament in 1701, the succession of the English crown was so fixed that in the event of a failure of heirs by William and Mary, and Anne, it should be limited to the Electress Sophia, of Hanover, George's mother, passing over nearer heirs who were Roman Catholics. By the treaty of union with Scotland (1707) the same succession was secured for its crown. By the death of Sophia three months before Queen Anne died, George became heir-apparent to the throne of the latter because of failure of heirs, and he succeeded her. His son, the Prince of Wales, became openly hostile to his father in 1718, and at Leicester House he established a sort of rival court. This enmity arose from the treatment of the prince's mother, the unfortunate Sophia Dorothea (to whom he was much attached), who, accused of intrigue with Count Königsmarck, was divorced in 1694, and imprisoned from that time until her death in 1726. George I. was a man of moderate intellectual ability, a cruel husband, a bad father, but not a bad sovereign, for he allowed able men to manage the affairs of the kingdom. He was taken with a fit in his carriage, while on his way to Osnabrück, and died before he reached that place, June 10, 1727. His son, George, by the unfortunate Sophia succeeded him.

George (Augustus) **II.**, King of Great Britain; son of the preceding and Sophia Dorothea; born in Hanover, Oct. 20, 1683. In his childhood and youth he was neglected by his father, and was brought up by his grandmother, the Electress Sophia. In 1705 he married a daughter of the Margrave of Brandenburg-Anspach, a woman of superior character and ability. He was made a peer of England the next year, with the chief title of Duke of Cambridge. He was a brave soldier under the Duke of Marlborough. In 1714 he accompanied his father to England, and was proclaimed Prince of Wales Sept. 22. The prince and his father hated each other cordially, and he was made an instrument of intrigue against the latter. The Princess of Wales was very popular, and the father also hated her. At one time the King proposed to send the prince to America, there to be disposed of so that he should have no more trouble with him. He was crowned King Oct. 11, 1727. His most able minister was Walpole (as he was of George I.), and he and the clever Queen ruled the realm for fourteen years. He, in turn, hated his son Frederick, Prince of Wales, as bitterly as he had been hated by his father. It was during the later years of the reign of George II. that the War of the Austrian Succession and the French and Indian War (in which the English-American colonies were conspicuously engaged) occurred. During that reign England had grown amazingly in material and moral strength among the nations. The wisdom of William Pitt had done much towards the acquirement of the fame of England, which had never been greater than in 1760. George died suddenly, like his father, in Kensington Palace, Oct. 25, 1760. He had never been popular with the English people.

There had been peace between France and England for about thirty years after the death of Queen Anne, during which time the colonists in America had enjoyed comparative repose. Then the selfish strifes of European monarchs kindled war again. In March, 1744, France declared war against Great Britain, and the colonists cheerfully prepared to begin the contest in America as King George's War; in Europe, the War of the Austrian Succes-

sion. A contest arose between Maria Theresa, Empress of Hungary, and the Elector of Bavaria, for the Austrian throne. The King of England espoused the cause of the empress, while the King of France took part with her opponent. This caused France to declare war against Great Britain. The French had built the strong fort of Louisburg, on the island of Cape Breton, after the treaty of Utrecht, and, because of its strength, it was called the Gibraltar of America. When the war was proclaimed, Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, perceiving the importance of that place in the coming contest, plans for its capture were speedily laid before the Massachusetts legislature. That body hesitated, but the measure was finally agreed upon by a majority of only one vote. Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and Connecticut furnished their proper quota of troops. New York sent artillery, and Pennsylvania provisions. Commodore Warren was in the West Indies with a fleet, and was expected to join the provincials in the expedition. After waiting some time, the colonial forces, under Sir William Pepperell, sailed, April 4, 1745, for Louisburg. Warren joined them at Canso early in May, and on the 11th the combined land forces, 4,000 strong, debarked at Gabarus Bay, a short distance from the fortress. The first intimation the French had of danger near was the sudden appearance of this formidable armament. Consternation prevailed in the fort and the town. A regular siege was begun on May 31. Other English vessels of war arrived, and the combined fleet and army prepared for attack on June 29. Unable to make a successful resistance, the fortress, the town of Louisburg, and the island of Cape Breton were surrendered to the English on the 28th. This event mortified the pride of France, and the following year the Duke d'Anville was sent with a powerful naval armament to recover the lost fortress, and to destroy English settlements along the seaboard. Storms wrecked many of his vessels, sickness swept away hundreds of his men, and D'Anville abandoned the enterprise without striking a blow. Anchoring at Chebucto (now Halifax), D'Anville died there by poison, it is believed. With the capture of Louisburg the war ended in the colonies. By a treaty made at Aix-la-Chapelle, all prisoners and property seized by either party were restored. The struggle had been costly, and fruitless of good except in making a revelation of the strength of the colonists.

George (William Frederick) **III.**, King of Great Britain; born in London, June 4, 1737; grandson of George II. His mind was narrow, his disposition was crafty and arbitrary, and during his long reign, while he was sane, his years were passed in continual combat against the growing liberal spirit of the age. Being a native of England (which his two royal predecessors were not), and young and moral, he was at first popular on his accession to the throne, Oct. 26, 1760. In his first speech in Parliament he expressed pride in his English birth, and thereby great enthusiasm in his favor was excited. On Sept. 8, 1761, he married Charlotte Sophia, sister of the Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, who shared his throne fifty-seven years, and bore him fifteen children, all but two of whom grew to maturity. Unfortunately for his kingdom, he neglected the wise counsels of Pitt, and made his preceptor, the Scotch Earl of Bute, his prime minister and confidential friend. The minister and his master became very unpopular, and in 1763 Bute resigned, and was succeeded by George Grenville (*q. v.*), who inaugurated the Stamp Act policy and other obnoxious measures towards the English-American colonies, which caused great discontent, a fierce quarrel, a long war, the final dismemberment of the British empire, and the political independence of the colonies. With the Stamp Act began the terribly stormy period of the reign of George III. In 1783 he was compelled to acknowledge the independence of his lost American colonies. Then he had continual quarrels with his ministry, and talked of leaving England and retiring to his little kingdom of Hanover, but refrained on being assured that it would be much easier for him to leave England than to return to it.

Like his two royal predecessors, George hated his oldest son, the Prince of Wales, because he was generally in political opposition to him and led a loose life. After a serious dispute with Russia, which threatened to seize Turkey, and another

GEORGE III.

with Spain, war with revolutionized France began in 1793, and the most arbitrary rule was exercised in England, driving the people at times to the verge of revolution. Ireland was goaded into rebellion, which was suppressed by the most cruel methods—equal in atrocity to any perpetrated by the French in La Vendée and Brittany. The union of Great Britain and Ireland was effected in 1800, the parliament of the latter ceasing to exist. Against the King's wishes, peace was made with France in 1802; but war was again begun the next year. Then came the struggle with Napoleon Bonaparte, which lasted until the overthrow of that ruler at Waterloo, June, 1815. In 1810 the King lost his youngest and favorite daughter, Amelia, by death. His anxiety during her illness deprived him of reason. He had been threatened with insanity once or twice before; now his mind was clouded forever. The first indication of his malady appeared on the day of the completion of the fiftieth year of his reign, Oct. 25, 1810. From that date his reign ceased in fact, and his son George, Prince of Wales, was made regent of the kingdom (Feb. 5, 1811). For nearly nine years the care of his person was intrusted to the faithful Queen. In 1819 the Duke of York assumed the responsibility. The

Queen was simple in her tastes and habits, rigid in the performance of moral duties, kind and benevolent. Their lives were models of moral purity and domestic happiness. The King died in Windsor Castle, Jan. 29, 1820.

There were members of the aristocracy that, through envy, hated Pitt, who, in spite of them, had been called to the highest offices in the kingdom. When young Prince George heard of the death of the King, he went to Carleton House, the residence of his mother, and sent for Newcastle, Pitt's political enemy. He and Lord Bute prevailed upon the young King to discard Pitt and favor their own schemes. Newcastle prepared the first speech from the throne of George III.; and when Pitt, as prime minister, went to him and presented the draft of an address to be pronounced at the meeting of the Privy Council, he was politely informed that the speech was already prepared and the preliminaries were arranged. Pitt immediately perceived that the King's tutor and warm personal friend of the young King's mother, the Earl of Bute, had made the arrangements, and would occupy a conspicuous place in the administration. George chose Bute for his counsellor and guide, and Pitt, to whom England, more than to any other man, owed its present power and glory, was allowed to retire and have his place filled by this Scotch adventurer. The people of England were disgusted, and by this blunder George created a powerful opposition party at the beginning of his reign.

The people of New York City, grateful for the repeal of the Stamp Act, voted a statue to the King and to Pitt. That of the former was equestrian, made of lead, and gilded. It was placed in the centre of the Bowling Green, near Fort George, at the foot of Broadway. Raised upon a pedestal, with the head of the King and the horse facing westward, it made an imposing appearance. It was set up, with great parade, Aug. 21, 1770. Within six years afterwards the people pulled it down, with demonstrations of contempt. Washington occupied New York with Continental troops in the summer of 1776. There he received the Declaration of Independence (July 9), and it was read to the army. The same evening a large concourse of soldiers and civilians assembled at the Bowling Green, pulled down the statue, broke it in pieces, and sent a portion to the house of Oliver Wolcott, on the western edge of Connecticut, where it was run into bullets by his family. In a letter to General Gates upon this event, Ebenezer Hazard wrote: "His [the King's] troops will probably have melted majesty fired at them." The venerable ZACHARIAH GREENE (*q. v.*), who was present at the pulling down of the statue, said the artist had made an omission of stirrups for the saddle of the horse, and it was a common remark of the soldiers, "The King ought to ride a hard-trotting horse without stirrups." Portions of that statue are now in possession of the New York Historical Society.

USUAL APPEARANCE OF GEORGE III. ABOUT 1776.
(From a sketch by Gear.)

The arrival of Richard Penn in London with the second petition of Congress aroused the anger of the King towards, and his fixed determination concerning,

the "rebellious colonies." He refused to see Penn or receive the petition, and on Aug. 23 he issued a proclamation for suppressing rebellion and sedition in America. "There is reason," said the proclamation, "to apprehend that such rebellion [in America] hath been much promoted and encouraged by the traitorous correspondence, counsels, and comfort of divers wicked and desperate persons within our realm," and he called upon all officers of the realm, civil and military, and all his subjects, to disclose all "traitorous conspiracies," giving information of the same to one of the secretaries of state, "in order to bring to condign punishment the authors, perpetrators, and abettors of such traitorous designs." This proclamation was aimed at Chatham and Camden in the House of Lords, and Barré in the House of Commons, and their active political friends. When it was read to the people at the Royal Exchange it was received with a general hiss from the populace. But the stubborn King would not yield. He would rather perish than consent to repeal the alterations in the charter of Massachusetts, or yield the absolute authority of Parliament. And North, who in his heart thought the King wrong, supported him chiefly, as was alleged, because he loved office with its power and emoluments better than justice. When, in November, the wife of John Adams read the King's proclamation, she wrote to her husband, saying, "This intelligence will make a plain path for you, though a dangerous one. I could not join to-day in the petitions of our worthy pastors for a reconciliation between our no longer parent state, but tyrant state, and the colonies. Let us separate; they are unworthy to be our brethren. Let us renounce them; and, instead of supplications as formerly for their prosperity and happiness, let us beseech the Almighty to blast their councils and bring to naught all their devices." The proclamation stimulated Congress to recommend the formation of State governments, and filled the minds and hearts of the people with thoughts of, and desires for, independence. Encouraged by Franklin, Rush, and others, THOMAS PAINE (*q. v.*), an emigrant from England, and a clear and powerful writer, prepared an appeal to the people of America in favor of independence.

The British ministry, either blind or wicked, misled George III. into the belief that a few regiments could subdue Massachusetts, and that New York could easily be seduced to the support of the crown by immunities and benefactions. The deceived monarch, therefore, ordered letters to be written to Gage, at the middle of April, 1775, to take possession of every colonial fort; to seize and secure all military stores of every kind collected for "the rebels"; to arrest and imprison all such as should be thought to have committed treason; to repress rebellion by force; to make the public safety the first object of consideration, and to substitute more coercive measures for ordinary forms of procedure, without pausing to require the aid of a civil magistrate. Four regiments, at first destined for Boston, were ordered to New York, to assist in the progress of intrigue; and a vessel carried out six packages of pamphlets, containing a very soothing and complimentary *Address of the People of Great Britain to the Inhabitants of America*, written by Sir John Dalrymple, at the request of Lord North. The Americans were not coaxed by this persuasive pamphlet, nor awed by the attempts to execute the sanguinary orders of Lord Dartmouth to Gage.

The great landholders in England, as well as the more warlike classes, had become sick of trying to tax the Americans without their consent. Indeed, all classes were convinced of its futility, and yearned for a change in the policy. Even the stubborn King, though unrelenting in his purpose to bring the Americans into submission, declared that the man who should approve the taxing of them, in connection with all its consequences, was "more fit for a madhouse than for a seat in Parliament." In the House of Commons (June, 1779), Lord John Cavendish moved for orders to withdraw the British forces employed in America; and the Duke of Richmond, in the House of Lords, proposed a total change of measures in America and Ireland. In both Houses these sensible measures were supported by increasing numbers. North was frequently dropping hints to the King that the advantages to

be gained by continuing the war would never repay its expenses. The King, disturbed by these propositions and the yielding disposition of his chief minister, summoned them all to his library, June 21, 1779, where, in a speech of more than an hour in length, he expressed to them "the dictates of his frequent and severe self-examination." He declared his firm resolution to carry on the war against America, France, and Spain; and that, "before he would hear of any man's readiness to come into office, he would expect to see it signed, under his own hand, that he was resolved to keep the empire entire, and that, consequently, no troops should be withdrawn from America, nor its independence ever be allowed." Stubbornly blind to well-known facts, he persisted in believing that, "with the activity of Clinton, and the Indians in the rear, the provinces, even now, would submit." This obstinacy left him only weak men to support him; for it ranged every able statesman and publicist in the kingdom on the side of the opposition.

Wright, in his *England under the House of Hanover*, says that, notwithstanding the King, in his speech from the throne, Dec. 5, 1783, had said, "I have sacrificed every consideration of my own to the wishes and opinions of my people. I make it my humble and earnest prayer to Almighty God that Great Britain may not feel the evils which might result from so great a dismemberment of the empire, and that America may be far from those calamities which have formerly proved, in the mother country, how essential monarchy is to the enjoyment of constitutional liberty. Religion, language, interests, affection may—and I hope will—yet prove a bond of permanent union between the two countries. To this end neither attention nor disposition shall be wanting on my part," he nevertheless detested everything American. The acknowledgment of the independence of the United States was wrung from him by dire necessity. Ever since the beginning of the troubles he had thoroughly hated Franklin personally, to whom, on account of his coolness and adroitness, he had given the name of "Arch Rebel." The King carried his prejudices so far that Sir John Pringle was driven to resign his place as President of the Royal Society in this wise: The King unjustly requested the society to publish, with the authority of its name, a contradiction of a scientific opinion of the rebellious Franklin. Pringle replied that it was not in his power to reverse the order of nature, and resigned. The pliant Sir Joseph Banks, with the practice of a true courtier, advocated the opinion patronized by his majesty, and was appointed president of the Royal Society.

As before stated, King George was greatly disturbed by the action of Parliament concerning the cessation of war in America. He said they had lost the feelings of Englishmen; and he took to heart what he called "the cruel usage of all the powers of Europe," who, excepting Spain, had expressed a desire for the freedom and independence of the United States. His ministry (North's) having resigned, he was compelled to accept a liberal one. Lord Shelbourne brought about the call of Lord Rockingham (whom the King disliked) to form a cabinet, and when his majesty finally yielded, he said, "Necessity made me yield to the advice of Lord Shelbourne." And when, finally, he was compelled to acknowledge the independence of the United States, he said, "I feel sensibly this dismemberment of America from the empire, and I should be miserable, indeed, if I did not feel that no blame on that account can be laid at my door," when he had been the chief obstacle to reconciliation from the beginning of the quarrel. He had such a poor opinion of the Americans that he consoled himself for the dismemberment by saying, "It may not in the end be an evil that they will become aliens of the kingdom."

George (Augustus Frederick) **IV.**, King of Great Britain; born in St. James's Palace, London, Aug. 12, 1762. In consequence of the insanity of George III., George, the Prince of Wales, was created by Parliament regent of the kingdom. The act for that purpose passed Feb. 5, 1811, and from that time until the death of his father, George was acting monarch. On Jan. 9, 1813, he issued from the royal palace at Westminster a manifesto concerning the causes of the war with the United States, and the subjects of blockades and impressments. He declared the war was not the consequence

of any fault of Great Britain, but that it had been brought on by the partial conduct of the American government in overlooking the aggressions of the French, and in their negotiations with them. He

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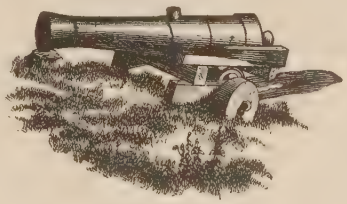
alleged that a quarrel with Great Britain had been sought because she had adopted measures solely retaliatory as to France, and that as these measures had been abandoned by a repeal of the Orders in Council, the war was now continued on the questions of impressment and search. On this point he took such a decisive position that the door for negotiation which the recommendation of the committee of the American Congress on foreign relations proposed to open seemed irrevocably shut. "His royal highness," said the manifesto, "can never admit that the exercise of the undoubted and hitherto undisputed right of searching neutral merchant vessels in time of war, and the impressment of British seamen when found therein, can be deemed any violation of a neutral flag; neither can he admit that the taking of such seamen from on board such vessels can be considered by any neutral state as a hostile measure or a justifiable cause of war." After reaffirming the old English doctrine of the impossibility of self-expatriation of a British subject, the manifesto continued: "But if to the practice of the United States to harbor British seamen be added their asserted right to transfer the allegiance of British subjects, and thus to cancel the jurisdiction of their legitimate sovereign by acts of naturalization and certificates of citizenship, which they pretend to be as valid out of their own territory as within it, it is obvious that to abandon this ancient right of Great Britain, and to admit these naval pretensions of the United States, would be to expose the very foundations of our maritime strength." The manifesto charged the United States government with systematic efforts to inflame the people against Great Britain; of ungenerous conduct towards Spain, Great Britain's ally, and of deserting the cause of neutrality. He spoke of the subserviency of the United States to the ruler of France, and against this course of conduct the prince regent solemnly protested. He thought that while Great Britain was contending for the liberties of mankind, she had a right to expect from the United States far different treatment—not an "abettor of French tyranny." George became King in 1820, and died in Windsor, June 26, 1830.

George, Fort, the name of four defensive works connected with warfare in the United States. The first was erected near the outlet of Lake George, N. Y., and, with Fort William Henry (*q. v.*) and other works, was the scene of important operations during the French and Indian War (*q. v.*) of 1755–59.

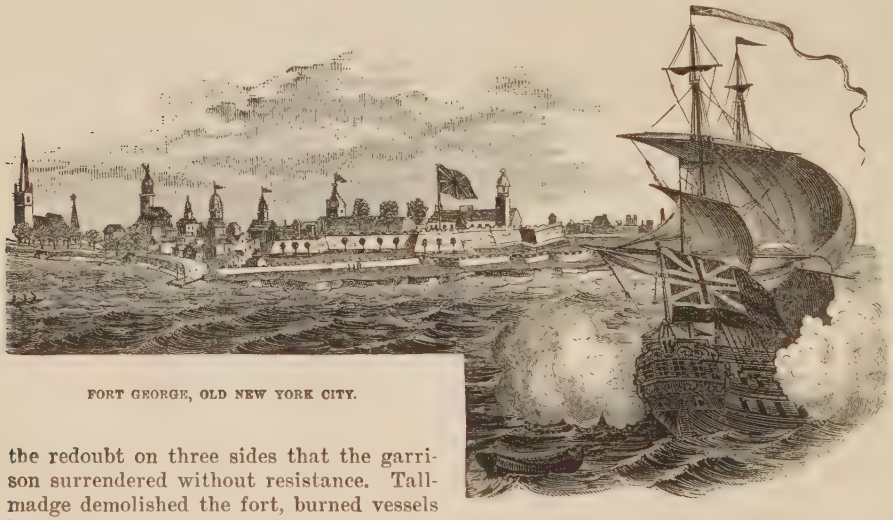
The second was on Long Island. In the autumn of 1780, some Rhode Island



OLD RELIC AT FORT GEORGE.

Tory refugees took possession of the manor-house of Gen. John Smith, at Smith's Point, L. I., fortified it and the grounds around it, and named the works Fort George, which they designed as a de-

pository of stores for the British in New York. They began cutting wood for the British army in the city. At the solicitation of General Smith, and the approval of Washington, Maj. Benjamin Tallmadge crossed the Sound from Fairfield, with eighty dismounted dragoons, and landed, on the evening of Nov. 21, at Woodville. There he remained until the next night, on account of a storm. At the mills, 2 miles from Fort George, he found a faithful guide, and at dawn he and his followers burst through the stockade, rushed across the parade, shouting "Washington and glory!" and so furiously assailed



FORT GEORGE, OLD NEW YORK CITY.

the redoubt on three sides that the garrison surrendered without resistance. Tallmadge demolished the fort, burned vessels lying at the wharf, and, with 300 prisoners, started for Fairfield. For this exploit Tallmadge received the thanks of Congress.

Another Fort George was near the mouth of the Niagara River. After the capture of York, the victors left that place early in May, 1813, to attack Fort George. Stormy weather had detained them at York for a week. Losses and sickness had reduced the number of the troops to 1,000. These were again conveyed by the fleet of Chauncey, who, with Dearborn and other naval commanders, went before in the pilot-schooner *Lady of the Lake,* and selected a landing-place 4 miles east of Fort Niagara. The British force at Fort George and vicinity, under General Vincent, then numbered about 1,800. Besides that fort, they had several works along the Niagara River. The American troops were debarked May 8, and Chauncey sailed for Sackett's Harbor for supplies and reinforcements for the army. He returned to Dearborn's camp, in the *Madison,* on May 22, and the same evening Commodore Perry arrived there. Arrangements were immediately made for an attack on Fort George. The commodore and Perry reconnoitred the enemy's batteries in the *Lady of the Lake.* Dearborn was ill, but on the morning of the 27th the troops were conveyed by the squadron to a point a little westward of the mouth of the Niagara, and landed under cover of the guns of the fleet. The advance was led by Col. Winfield Scott, accompanied by Commodore Perry, who had charge of the boats. He and Scott both leaped into the water at the head of the first division of the men, and, in the face of a galling fire and gleaming bayonets, they ascended the bank. The other troops followed, and, after a severe conflict on the plain, the British fell back discomfited. General Vincent, satisfied that he must retreat, and knowing Fort George to be untenable, ordered the garrison to spike the guns, destroy the ammunition, and abandon it. This was done, and the whole British force retreated westward to a strong position among

the hills, at a place called "The Beaver Dams," about 18 miles from the Niagara River. There Vincent had a deposit of stores and provisions. The garrisons of forts Erie and Chippewa abandoned them, and the whole Niagara frontier passed into the hands of the Americans.

Still another Fort George was at the end of Manhattan Island. When the English captured New Amsterdam the name was changed to New York, and the fort to Fort James, and later to Fort George.

George, HENRY, political economist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Sept. 2, 1839; was educated in the public school of his native place, and after working in a store for a short time, went to sea and served as a cabin-boy for fourteen months. Later he shipped as an ordinary seaman on a coasting vessel running between Philadelphia and Boston. In 1858 he went to British Columbia in search of gold, but, meeting with disappointment, went to San Francisco in 1860, and with two others established a paper called the *Journal*. His inability to secure news from the Eastern States because he was not a member of the press association led to the speedy failure of this enterprise. After various other unsuccessful projects he was offered a place on the staff of the San Francisco *Times*, of which he later became managing editor. He was subsequently connected with the San Francisco *Chronicle*, the San Francisco *Herald*, and the Oakland *Recorder*. In 1872 he was a delegate to the convention which nominated Horace Greeley for the Presidency, and in the same year he established the San Francisco *Evening Post*, the first one-cent paper on the Pacific coast. In 1880 he removed to New York, and in the following year went to Ireland to write up the land question for several American newspapers. In 1886 he was the candidate of the UNITED LABOR PARTY (*q. v.*) for mayor of New York, and in the election polled 68,110 votes. In 1887 he founded *The Standard* and with the REV. EDWARD MCGLYNN, D.D. (*q. v.*), an eminent Roman Catholic priest, organized the Anti-poverty Society. In the same year he was an unsuccessful candidate for secretary of state. In 1889 he went to England, and in 1890 visited Australia. In the autumn of 1897 he was nominated for mayor of Greater New York, by several organizations. Later these bodies united under the name of the "Democracy of

HENRY GEORGE.

Thomas Jefferson," and Mr. George accepted the nomination. He began the campaign with great energy. On the night before his death he delivered four addresses. He retired about twelve o'clock, was seized with apoplexy, and died before morning, Oct. 29. His son, Henry George, Jr., was placed at the head of the ticket, and continued the canvass. Mr. George's writings include *Progress and Poverty; The Irish Land Question; Social Problems; Protection or Free Trade;* a number of pamphlets on *The Condition of Labor; An Open Letter to Pope Leo XIII.; A Perplexed Philosopher;* and *The Science of Political Economy.* See SINGLE TAX.

George, WILLIAM REUBEN, reformer; born in West Dryden, N. Y., June 4, 1866; settled in New York City in 1880. Later he became interested in the welfare of the children of the very poor. In 1895 he founded the "Junior Republic," a movement in which children govern themselves, receiving pay for all the work they perform. Since this plan was instituted it has become a successful method in caring for delinquent and dependent children.

George Griswold, THE, a ship sent from the United States in 1862 with food for starving English operatives. The

blockade of Southern ports had caused a lack of the cotton supply in England and the running of mills on half-time or shutting them up altogether. This produced wide-spread distress in the manufacturing districts. In Lancashire alone 1,000,000 depended for bread on the mills. In 1862 a pitiful cry of distress came over the sea. It was heard by the loyal people of the North, who, repressing their just resentment against the British government for the "aid and comfort" it had given to the enemies of the republic, heeded the cry, and the *George Griswold* was laden at New York, chiefly through the liberality of merchants there, with food for the starving English operatives of the value of more than $200,000. With her was sent a government war-vessel as a convoy to protect her precious freight from any possible attack of the Anglo-Confederate cruiser ALABAMA (*q. v.*), which was then lighting the ocean with a blaze of American merchant vessels which she had set on fire. See COTTON FAMINE.

Georgia, the latest settled State of the original thirteen. It framed its first State constitution in 1777, its second in 1789, and a third in 1798, which was several times amended. On June 2, 1788, Georgia ratified the national Constitution. The settlers on the frontier suffered much from incursions of the CREEK and CHEROKEE INDIANS (*qq. v.*), but their friendship was secured by treaties in 1790–91. By a treaty in 1802 the Creeks ceded to the United States a large tract, which was afterwards assigned to Georgia, now forming the southwestern counties of the State. The same year Georgia ceded to the United States all its claims to the lands westward of the boundaries of its present limits. Finally difficulties arose between the State and the national government respecting the Cherokees, and on their removal to the country west of the Mississippi, in 1838, Georgia came into possession of all their lands. Immediately after the election of Mr. Lincoln in 1860, the politicians of Georgia took measures for accomplishing the secession of the State. Its delegates in the Confederate government organized at Montgomery, Ala., were conspicuous, ALEXANDER H. STEPHENS (*q. v.*) being made Vice-President of the Confederacy. The governor of Georgia ordered the seizure of the public property of the United States within the limits of his State, and war made havoc on its coasts and in the interior. Sherman swept through the State with a large army late in 1864, "living off the country," and within its borders the President of the Confederacy was captured in May, 1865 (see DAVIS, JEFFERSON). Within its borders was the famous Andersonville prison-pen (see CONFEDERATE PRISONS). In June, 1865,

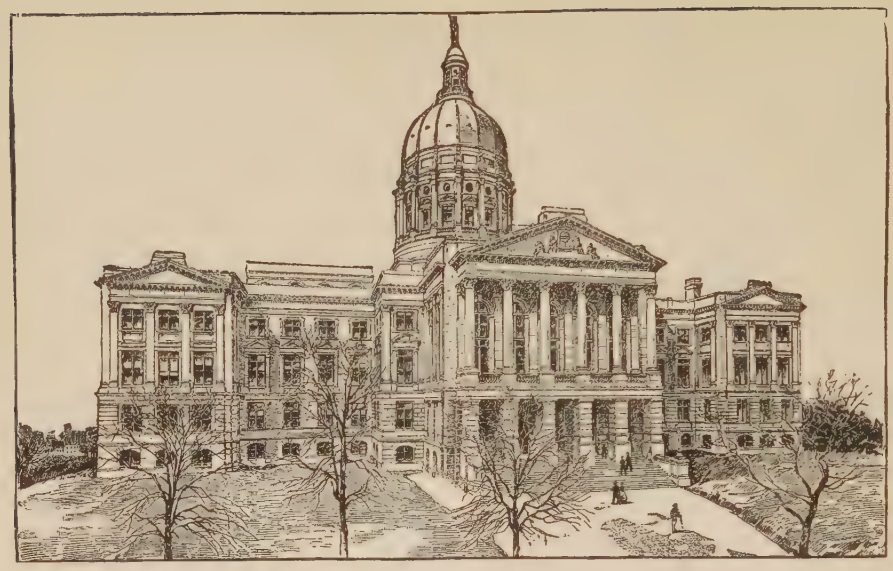
SEAL OF GEORGIA.

a provisional governor was appointed for the State. A convention held at Milledgeville late in October repealed the ordinance of secession, declared the war debt void, amended the constitution so as to abolish slavery, and in November elected a governor, legislature, and members of Congress. Congress did not approve these measures, and the Senators and Representatives chosen were not admitted to seats. In 1867, Georgia, with Alabama and Florida, formed a military district, and was placed under military rule. A convention at Atlanta, in March, 1868, framed a constitution, which was ratified in April by a majority of nearly 18,000 votes. On June 25, Congress, by act, provided for the readmission of Georgia, with other States, upon their ratification of the Fourteenth Amendment to the national Constitution. For a violation of the RECONSTRUCTION ACT (*q. v.*), in not permitting colored men, legally elected, to

occupy seats in the legislature, Georgia representatives were not permitted to take seats in Congress. The Supreme Court of the State declared that negroes were entitled to hold office. A new election was held, both houses of the State legislature were duly organized, Jan. 31, 1869, all the requirements of Congress were acceded to, and, by act of July 15, Georgia was readmitted into the Union. Its representatives took their seats in December, 1869. Since the close of the war Georgia has had a most remarkable material development, caused in large part by the introduction of cotton manufacturing. Its mills are among the largest in the world, and their output is steadily increasing. The State was the first to feel the life of the "New South." The Cotton Expostition in 1881 and the Cotton States and International Exposition in 1895, both in Atlanta, showed to the world the practical accomplishments under the new order of things, and greatly stimulated all industrial efforts. In 1900 the assessed valuation of all taxable property was $435,000,000, and the recognized bonded debt was $7,836,000. The population in 1890 was 1,837,353; in 1900, 2,216,331.

When, in 1729, the proprietors of the Carolinas surrendered their charter to the crown, the whole country southward of the Savannah River to the vicinity of St. Augustine was a wilderness, peopled by native tribes, and was claimed by the Spaniards as a part of Florida. The English disputed the claim, and war clouds seemed to be gathering. At that juncture Gen. James Edward Oglethorpe (*q. v.*), commiserating the wretched condition of prisoners for debt who crowded the English prisons, proposed in Parliament the founding of a colony in America, partly for the benefit of this unfortunate class, and as an asylum for oppressed Protestants of Germany and other Continental states. A committee of inquiry reported favorably, and the plan, as proposed by Oglethorpe, was approved by King George II. A royal charter was obtained for a corporation (June 9, 1732) for twenty-one years, "in trust for the poor," to establish a colony in the disputed territory south of the Savannah, to be called Georgia, in honor of the King. Individuals subscribed largely to defray the expenses of emigrants, and within two years Parliament appropriated $160,000 for the same purpose. The trustees, appointed by the crown, possessed all legislative and executive power, and there was no political liberty for the people. In November, 1732, Oglethorpe left England with 120

THE LANDING OF OGLETHORPE IN GEORGIA.



THE CAPITOL, ATLANTA, GEORGIA.

emigrants, and, after a passage of fifty days, touched at Charleston, giving great joy to the inhabitants, for he was about to erect a barrier between them and the Indians and Spaniards. Landing a large portion of the emigrants on Port Royal Island, he proceeded to the Savannah River with the remainder, and upon Yamacraw Bluff (the site of Savannah) he laid the foundations of the future State in the ensuing spring of 1733. The rest of the emigrants soon joined him. They built a fort, and called the place Savannah, the Indian name of the river, and there he held a friendly conference with the Indians, with whom satisfactory arrangements for obtaining sovereignty of the domain were made. Within eight years 2,500 emigrants were sent over from England at an expense to the trustees of $400,000.

The condition upon which the lands were parcelled out was military duty; and so grievous were the restrictions, that many colonists went into South Carolina, where they could obtain land in fee. Nevertheless, the colony increased in numbers, a great many emigrants coming from Scotland and Germany. Oglethorpe went to England in 1734, and returned in 1736 with 300 emigrants, among them 150 Highlanders skilled in military affairs. John and Charles Wesley and George Whitefield came to spread the gospel among the people and the surrounding heathen. Moravians had also settled in Georgia, but the little colony was threatened with disaster. The jealous Spaniards at St. Augustine showed signs of hostility. Against this expected trouble Oglethorpe had prepared by building forts in that direction. Finally, in 1739, war broke out between England and Spain, and Oglethorpe was made commander of the South Carolina and Georgia troops. With 1,000 men and some Indians he invaded Florida, but returned unsuccessful. In 1742 the Spaniards retaliated, and, with a strong land and naval force, threatened the Georgia colony with destruction. Disaster was averted by a stratagem employed by Oglethorpe, and peace was restored.

Slavery was prohibited in the colony, and the people murmured. Many settlements were abandoned, for tillers of the soil were few. Finally, in 1750, the restrictions concerning slavery were removed; and in 1752, the trustees having surrendered their charter to the crown,

Georgia became a royal province, with privileges similar to the others. A General Assembly was established in 1755, and in 1763 all the lands between the Savannah and St. Mary rivers were, by royal proclamation, annexed to Georgia. The colony prospered from the time of the transfer to the crown. The Georgians sympathized with their Northern brethren in their political grievances, and bore a conspicuous part in the war for independence. A State constitution was adopted by a convention on Feb. 5, 1777, and Georgia took its place among the independent States of the Union, with BUTTON GWINNETT (*q. v.*), one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, as acting governor.

Under the King's charter for planting the new colony, there were twenty-one trustees. Lord (Viscount) Perceval was chosen president of the trustees, and a code of regulations for the colony, with agreements and stipulations, was speedily prepared. The title of the association was, Trustees for Settling and Establishing the Colony of Georgia. The trustees were: Anthony, Earl of Shaftesbury, John (Lord) Perceval, Edward Digby, George Carpenter, James Edward Oglethorpe, George Heathcote, Thomas Tower, Robert Moore, Robert Hucks, Roger Holland, William Sloper, Francis Eyles, John La Roche, James Vernon, William Beletha, John Burton, Richard Bundy, Arthur Beaford, Samuel Smith, Adam Anderson, and Thomas Coram. They were vested with legislative powers for the government of the colony, for the space of twenty-one years, at the expiration of which time a permanent government was to be established by the King or his successor, in accordance with British law and usage. They adopted a seal for the colony, which indicated the avowed intention of making it a silk-producing commonwealth. On one side was represented a group of toiling silk-worms, and the motto, "*Non sibi, sed alius*"; on the other, the genius of the colony, between two urns (two rivers), with a cap of liberty on her head, in her hands a spear and a horn of plenty, and the words, "*Colonia Georgia Aug.*" This was a strange seal for a colony whose toilers and others possessed no political freedom. The code of laws and regulations adopted by the trustees provided that each tract of land granted to a settler should be accepted as a pledge that the owner should take up arms for the common defence whenever required; that no tract should exceed 25 acres in extent, and no person should possess more than 500 acres; that no woman should be capable of succeeding to landed property; that, in default of male heirs, the property of a proprietor should revert to the trustees, to be again granted to another emigrant; that if any portion of land granted should not, within eighteen years thereafter, be cleared, fenced, and cultivated, it should relapse to the trustees. It was recommended that the daughters of a deceased proprietor having no male heirs, unless provided for by marriage, should have some compensation, and his widow have the use of his house and half his land during her life. No inhabitant was permitted to leave the province without a license; the importation of rum was disallowed; trade with the West Indies was declared unlawful, and negro slavery was absolutely forbidden. It has been well said that, with one or two exceptions, this code did not exhibit a trace of common-sense. It is no wonder the colony did not prosper, for the laws were hostile to contentment, discouraging every planter whose children were girls, and offering very poor incentives to industry. When, in 1752, the trusteeship expired, and Georgia was made a royal province, its growth was rapid.

In 1742 the Spaniards at St. Augustine determined to invade, seize, and hold Georgia, and capture or drive the English settlers from it. With a fleet of thirty-six vessels from Cuba and a land force about 3,000 strong, they entered the harbor of St. Simon's in July. Oglethorpe, always vigilant, had learned of preparations for this expedition, and he was on St. Simon's Island before them, but with less than 1,000 men, including Indians, for the governor of South Carolina had failed to furnish men or supplies. The task of defending both provinces from invasion devolved upon the Georgians. When the Spanish fleet appeared Oglethorpe went on board his own little vessels and addressed the seamen with encouraging words; but when

he saw the ships of the enemy pass the English batteries at the southern end of the island, he knew resistance would be in vain, so he ordered his squadron to run up to Frederica, while he spiked the guns at St. Simon's and retreated with his troops. There, waiting for reinforcements from South Carolina (which did not come), he was annoyed by attacks from Spanish detachments, but always repulsed them. Finally, he proceeded to make a night attack on the Spanish camp at St. Simon's. When near the camp a Frenchman in his army ran ahead, fired his musket, and deserted to the enemy. The Spaniards were aroused, and Oglethorpe fell back to Frederica, and accomplished the punishment of the deserter in a novel way. He addressed a letter to the Frenchman as a spy in the Spanish camp, telling him to represent the Georgians as very weak in numbers and arms, and to advise the Spaniards to attack them at once; and if they would not do so, to try and persuade them to remain at St. Simon's three days longer; for within that time a British fleet, with 2,000 land troops, would arrive to attack St. Augustine. This letter was sent to the deserter by a Spanish prisoner, who, as it was expected he would, carried it to the Spanish commander. The Frenchman was put in irons, and afterwards hanged. A council of war was held, and while it was in session vessels from Carolina, seen at sea, were mistaken for the British fleet alluded to. The Spaniards determined to attack Oglethorpe immediately, and then hasten to the defence of St. Augustine. They advanced on Frederica, along a narrow road flanked by a forest and a morass; and when within a mile of the fort Oglethorpe and his Highlanders, lying in ambush, fell upon them furiously. Nearly the whole of the advanced division were killed or captured, and a second, pressing forward, shared their fate. The Spaniards retreated in confusion, leaving about 200 dead on the field. They fled to their ships, and in them to St. Augustine, to find that they had been outgeneraled by Oglethorpe. The place of the slaughter is called "Bloody Marsh" to this day. This stratagem probably saved Georgia and South Carolina from utter destruction.

Sir James Wright was appointed royal governor of Georgia in 1764. He ruled wisely, but was a warm adherent of the royal cause. His influence kept down open resistance to the acts of Parliament for some time; but when that resistance became strong, it was suddenly overpowering. In January, 1776, Joseph Habersham, a member of the Assembly, raised a party of volunteers and made Governor Wright a prisoner, but set him free on his parole not to leave his own house. This parole he violated. A sentinel was placed before his door, and all intercourse between Wright and friends of the crown was forbidden. One stormy night (Feb. 11, 1776), Governor Wright escaped from a back window of his house, with an attendant, fled to a boat at the river-side, and went down the Savannah 5 miles to Bonaventure, the residence of his companion; thence he was conveyed before daylight to the British armed ship *Scarborough*, in Tybee Sound. So ended the rule of the last royal governor in Georgia. Sir James was a native of Charleston, S. C.; the son of a chief-justice (Robert Wright) of that province; agent of the province in Great Britain; and attorney-general; and in 1760 was appointed chief-justice and lieutenant-governor. In 1772 he was created a baronet. After his escape from Savannah he retired to England, losing all his large estate in Georgia by confiscation. He died in 1786.

Late in 1771 Noble Wimberley Jones was chosen speaker of the Georgia Assembly. He was a man of exemplary life, but the royal governor, Sir James Wright, who had reported him a strong opposer of government measures, would not consent to the choice. The Assembly voted this interference a breach of their privileges. Hillsborough, the secretary of state for the colonies, censured the House for their "unwarrantable and inconsistent arrogance," and directed the governor to "put his negative upon any person whom they should next elect for speaker, and to dissolve the Assembly in case they should question the right of such negative." So the affections of the colonies, one after another, were alienated from the mother country by her unwise rulers.

The Provincial Congress of Georgia assembled at Tondee's Long Room, in Savannah, July 4, 1775, at which delegates from fourteen districts and parishes were in attendance — namely, from the districts of Savannah, Vernonburg, Acton, Sea Island, and Little Ogeechee, and the parishes of St. Matthew, St. Philip, St. George, St. Andrew, St. David, St. Thomas, St. Mary, St. Paul, and St. John. Archibald Bullock was elected president of the Congress, and George Walton secretary. The Congress adopted the American Association, and appointed as delegates to the Continental Congress Lyman Hall (already there), Archibald Bullock, Dr. Jones, John Houstoun, and Rev. Dr. Zubley, a Swiss by birth, who soon became a Tory. Sir James Wright (the governor) issued proclamations to quench the flames of patriotism, but in vain. His power had departed forever.

In the winter of 1778–79, General Lincoln was sent to Georgia to take the place of General Howe. General Prevost, commanding the British forces in east Florida, was ordered to Savannah, to join Lieutenant-Colonel Campbell for the subjugation of Georgia to British rule. On his way, Prevost captured Sunbury (Jan. 9, 1779) and took 200 Continental prisoners. As soon as he reached Savannah he sent Campbell against Augusta, which was abandoned by the garrison, who escaped across the river. The State now seemed at the mercy of the invader. An invasion of South Carolina was anticipated. The militia of that State were summoned to the field. Lincoln was at Charleston. With militia lately arrived from North Carolina and the fragments of Howe's force, he had about 1,400 men, whom he stationed to guard the fords of the Savannah. The force under Prevost was much larger, but he hesitated to cross the river, the marshy borders of which were often overflowed to the width of 3 or 4 miles, threaded only at one or two points by a narrow causeway. A detachment sent by Prevost to take possession of Port Royal Island was repulsed by Colonel Moultrie. Lincoln, being reinforced, sent Colonel Ashe, of North Carolina, with 1,400 troops, to drive the British from Augusta. The British fled down the Georgia side of the river at his approach. He crossed and pursued, and at Brier Creek, about half-way to Savannah, he lay encamped, when he was surprised, and, after a sharp skirmish, was defeated, and his troops dispersed. The British reoccupied Augusta and opened a communication with the South Carolina Tories and the friendly Creek Indians. Now secured in the quiet possession of Georgia, Prevost issued a proclamation reinstating Sir James Wright as governor, and the laws as they had been before 1775. Savannah became the headquarters of the British army in the South.

By a compact between the national government and Georgia, made in 1802, they forever agreed, in consideration of the latter relinquishing her claim to the Mississippi territory, to extinguish, at the national expense, the Indian title to the lands occupied by them in Georgia, "whenever it could be peaceably done on reasonable terms." Since making that agreement, the national government had extinguished the Indian title to about 15,000,000 acres, and conveyed the same to the State of Georgia. There still remained 9,537,000 acres in possession of the Indians, of which 5,292,000 acres belonged to the Cherokees and the remainder to the Creek nation. In 1824 the State government became clamorous for the entire removal of the Indians from the commonwealth, and, at the solicitation of Governor Troup, President Monroe appointed two commissioners, selected by the governor, to make a treaty with the Creeks for the purchase of their lands. The latter were unwilling to sell and move away, for they had begun to enjoy the arts and comforts of civilization. They passed a law forbidding the sale of any of their lands, on pain of death. After the breaking up of the general council, a few of the chiefs violated this law by negotiating with the United States commissioners. By these chiefs, who were only a fraction of the leaders of the tribes, all the lands of the Creeks in Georgia were ceded to the United States. The treaty was ratified by the United States Senate, March 3, 1825. When information of these proceedings reached the Creeks, a secret council determined not to accept the treaty and to slay McIntosh,

the chief of the party who had assented to it. He and another chief were shot, April 30. A new question now arose. Governor Troup contended that upon the ratification of the treaty the fee simple of the lands vested in Georgia. He took measures for a survey of the lands, under the authority of the legislature of Georgia, and to distribute them among the white inhabitants of the State. The remonstrances of the Creeks caused President Adams to appoint a special agent to investigate the matter, and General Gaines was sent with a competent force to prevent any disturbance. The agent reported that bad faith and corruption had marked the treaty, and that forty-nine-fiftieths of the Creeks were hostile to it. The President determined not to allow interference with the Indians until the next meeting of Congress. Troup determined, at first, to execute the treaty in spite of the President, but the firmness of the latter made the governor hesitate. A new negotiation was opened with the Creeks, and finally resulted in the cession of all the Creek lands in Georgia to the United States. By this new treaty the Creeks retained all their lands in Alabama, which had been ceded by a former treaty.

On the recommendation of Senator Toombs and others at Washington, in the winter of 1860–61, the governor of Georgia (Joseph Brown) ordered the seizure of the United States coast defences on the border of the State before the secession convention met. Fort Pulaski, on Cockspur Island, at the mouth of the Savannah River, and Fort Jackson, near the city of Savannah, were seized on Jan. 3, 1861. On the same day the National arsenal at Savannah was taken possession of by Confederates, and 700 State troops, by the orders and in the presence of the governor, took possession of the arsenal at Augusta, Jan. 24, when the National troops there were sent to New York. In the arsenal were 22,000 muskets and rifles, some cannon, and a large amount of munitions of war. The forts were without garrisons, and each was in charge of only two or three men.

Late in November, 1861, Commodore Dupont went down the coast from Port Royal (*q. v.*) with a part of his fleet, and with ease took possession of the Big Tybee Island, at the mouth of the Savannah River, from which Fort Pulaski, which was within easy mortar distance, might be assailed, and the harbor of Savannah perfectly sealed against blockade runners. On the approach of the National gunboats the defences were abandoned, and on Nov. 25, Dupont wrote to the Secretary of War: "The flag of the United States is flying over the territory of Georgia." Before the close of the year the National authority was supreme from Warsaw Sound, below the mouth of the Savannah, to the North Edisto River, below Charleston. Every fort on the islands of that region had been abandoned, and there was nothing to make serious opposition to National authority. When the National forces reached those sea islands along the coasts of South Carolina and Georgia, there was a vast quantity of valuable sea-island cotton, gathered and ungathered, upon them. When the first panic was over the Confederates returned, stealthily, and applied the torch to millions of dollars' worth of this staple.

On Jan. 2, 1861, elections were held in Georgia for members of a convention to consider the subject of secession. The people, outside of the leading politicians and their followers, were opposed to secession; and Alexander H. Stephens, the most consistent and able statesman in Georgia, though believing in the right of secession, opposed the measure as unnecessary and full of danger to the public welfare. On the other hand, Robert Toombs, a shallow but popular leader, unscrupulous in methods of leadership, goaded the people on to disaster by harangues, telegraphic despatches, circulars, etc. He was then one of the most active of the conspirators in the national Congress, and worked night and day to precipitate his State into revolution. The vote at the election was from 25,000 to 30,000 less than usual, and there was a decided majority of the members elected against secession. The convention assembled at Milledgeville, the capital of the State, on Jan. 16. There were 295 members present, who chose Mr. Crawford to preside. "With all the appliances brought to bear, with all the fierce, rushing, maddening events of the

hour," said the writer of the day, "the co-operationists had a majority, notwithstanding the falling-off of nearly 30,000, and an absolute majority of elected delegates of twenty-nine. But, upon assembling, by coaxing, bullying, and all other arts, the majority was changed." On the 18th a resolution was passed by a vote of 105 to 130, declaring it to be the right and duty of the State to withdraw from the Union. On the same day they appointed a committee to draft an ordinance of secession. It was reported almost immediately, and was shorter than any of its predecessors. It was in a single paragraph, and simply declared the repeal and abrogation of all laws which bound the commonwealth to the Union, and that the State of Georgia was in "full possession and exercise of all the rights of sovereignty which belong and appertain to a free and independent State." The ordinance elicited many warm expressions of Union sentiments. Mr. Stephens made a telling speech in favor of the Union, and he and his brother Linton voted against secession in every form. When, at two o'clock in the afternoon of Jan. 19, 1861, the ordinance of secession was adopted, by a vote of 208 against 89, Stephens declared that he should go with his State, and, in accordance with a resolution adopted, he signed the ordinance. A resolution to submit the ordinance to the people of the State for ratification or rejection was rejected by a large majority. At that stage of the proceedings, a copy of a resolution passed by the legislature of the State of New York, tendering to the President of the United States all the available forces of the State, to enable him to enforce the laws, was received, and produced much excitement. Toombs immediately offered the following resolution, which was adopted unanimously: "As a response to the resolution of New York, that this convention highly approve of the energetic and patriotic conduct of the governor of Georgia in taking possession of FORT PULASKI (*q. v.*) by Georgia troops, and request him to hold possession until the relations of Georgia with the federal government be determined by this convention, and that a copy of this resolution be ordered to be transmitted to the governor of New York."

While General Mitchel was holding the Charleston and Memphis Railway in northern Alabama, he set on foot one of the most daring enterprises attempted during the war. It was an effort to break up railway communications between Chattanooga and Atlanta, in Georgia. For this purpose J. J. Andrews, who had been engaged in the secret service by General Buell, was employed. In April, 1862, with twenty picked men, in the guise of Confederates from Kentucky seeking Georgia's freedom, Andrews walked to Marietta. At that place they took the cars for a station not far from the foot of Great Kenesaw Mountain, and there, while the engineer and conductor were at breakfast, they uncoupled the engine, tender, and box-car from the passenger train and started up the road at full speed. They told inquirers where they were compelled to stop that they were conveying powder to Beauregard's army. They passed several trains before they began to destroy the road. The first train that came to a broken spot had its engine reversed and became a pursuer of the raiders. Onward they dashed with the speed of a gale, passing other trains, when, at an important curve in the road, after destroying the track a considerable distance, Andrews said, "Only one more train to pass, boys, and then we will put our engine at full speed, burn the bridges after us, dash through Chattanooga, and on to Mitchel, at Huntsville." The exciting chase continued many miles. The raiders cut telegraph wires and tore up tracks. The pursuers gained upon them. Finally their lubricating oil became exhausted, and such was the speed of the engine that the brass journals in which the axles revolved were melted. Fuel failing, the raiders were compelled to leave their conveyance, 15 miles from Chattanooga, and take refuge in the tangled woods on Chickamauga Creek. A great man-hunt was organized. The mountain passes were picketed, and thousands of horse and foot soldiers scoured the country in all directions. The whole party were finally captured, and Andrews and seven of his companions were hanged. To each of the survivors the Secretary of War gave a bronze medal in token of approval. See UNITED STATES, GEORGIA, vol. ix.

GOVERNORS OF GEORGIA—COLONIAL.

Name.	Date.	Remarks.
John Reynolds	1754	
Henry Ellis	1757	
James Wright	1760	
Archibald Bullock, acting	1776	Appointed by the Georgia Assembly.
Button Gwinnett, acting	1777	
John A. Treutlen	1777	Under the new State constitution.
John Houstoun	1778	
Georgia in the hands of the British, with Sir James Wright as royal governor	1779 to 1781	
John Martin	1782	Chosen by Assembly.
Lyman Hall	1783	
John Houstoun	1784	
Samuel Elbert	1785	
Edward Telfair	1786	
George Matthews	1787	
George Handley	1788	

UNDER THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION.

Name.	Date.
George Walton	1789–90
Edward Telfair	1790–93
George Matthews	1793–96
Jared Irwin	1796–98
James Jackson	1798–1801
David Emanuel	1801
Josiah Tattnall	1801–2
John Milledge	1802–6
Jared Irwin	1806–9
David B. Mitchell	1809–13
Peter Early	1813–15
David B Mitchell	1815–17
William Rabun	1817–19
Matthew Talbot, acting	1819
John Clark	1819–23
George M. Troup	1823–27
John Forsyth	1827–29
George R. Gilmer	1829–31
Wilson Lumpkin	1831–35
William Schley	1835–37
George R. Gilmer	1837–39
Charles J. McDonald	1839–43
George W. Crawford	1843–47
George W. B. Towns	1847–51
Howell Cobb	1851–53
Herschel V. Johnson	1853–57
Joseph E. Brown	1857–65
James Johnson	1865
Charles J. Jenkins	1865–67
Gen. T. H. Ruger	18[illegible]
Rufus B. Bullock	1868–72
James Milton Smith	1872–77
Alfred H. Colquitt	1877–82
Alexander H. Stephens	1882–83
Henry D. McDaniel	1883–86
John B. Gordon	1886–90
William J. Northen	1890–94
William Y. Atkinson	1894–98
Allen D Candler	1898–1902
Joseph M. Terrell	1902–5

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Date.
William Few	1st and 2d	1789 to 1793
James Gunn	1st to 7th	1789 " 1801
James Jackson	3d	1794 " 1795
George Watson	4th	1795
Josiah Tattnall	4th to 5th	1796 to 1799
Abraham Baldwin	6th " 9th	1799 " 1807
James Jackson	7th " 8th	1801 " 1806
John Milledge	9th " 12th	1806 " 1809
George Jones	10th	1807
William H. Crawford	10th to 12th	1807 to 1813

UNITED STATES SENATORS (*Continued*).

Name.	No. of Congress.	Date.
Charles Tait	11th	1809
William B. Bullock	13th	1813
William Wyatt Bibb	13th to 14th	1813 to 1816
George M. Troup	14th " 15th	1816 " 1819
John Forsyth	15th	1819
John Elliott	16th to 18th	1819 to 1824
Freeman Walker	16th	1819 " 1821
Nicholas Ware	17th to 18th	1821 " 1824
Thomas W. Cobb	18th " 20th	1824 " 1828
John McPherson Berrien	19th " 20th	1825 " 1829
Oliver H. Prince	20th	1828
John Forsyth	21st to 23d	1829 to 1834
George M. Troup	21st " 22d	1829 " 1833
Alfred Cuthbert	23d " 27th	1834 " 1843
John P. King	23d " 24th	1833 " 1837
Wilson Lumpkin	25th " 26th	1837 " 1841
John McPherson Berrien	27th " 32d	1841 " 1852
Walter T. Colquitt	28th " 30th	1843 " 1848
Herschel V. Johnson	30th	1848
William C. Dawson	31st to 33d	1849 to 1855
Robert M. Charlton	32d	1852
Robert Toombs	33d to 36th	1853 to 1861
Alfred Iverson	34th " 36th	1855 " 1861
[illegible]	36th " 41st	1861 " 1871
Joshua Hill	41st " 42d	1871 " 1873
H. V. M. Miller	41st	1871
Thomas M. Norwood	42d to 43d	1871 to 1875
John B. Gordon	43d " 46th	1873 " 1881
Benjamin H. Hill	45th " 47th	1877 " 1882
Joseph E. Brown	47th " 51st	1881 " 1891
Pope Barrow	47th	1882
Alfred H. Colquitt	48th to 53d	1883 to 1894
John B. Gordon	52d " 55th	1891 " 1897
Augustus O. Bacon	54th " ——	1895 " ——
Alexander S. Clay	55th " ——	1897 " ——

Gerard, JAMES WATSON, lawyer; born in New York City in 1794; graduated at Columbia in 1811; practised law in New York till 1869; secured the incorporation of the House of Refuge for Juvenile Delinquents in New York, which was the first institution of this kind in the United States. He was also an ardent advocate for a uniformed police. He died in New York, Feb. 7, 1874.

Gerard de Rayneval, CONRAD ALEXANDRE, diplomatist; born in France. On the ratification of the treaty between France and the United States, of Feb. 6, 1778, diplomatic relations were fully established between the two governments by the French sending M. Gerard (who had been an active participator in the negotiations) as minister plenipotentiary to the young republic. He sailed for America in D'Estaing's flag-ship, in company with Silas Deane, and arrived at Philadelphia early in July. There being no traditionary rules of etiquette suitable for the occasion, the ceremonials which took place at his reception by Congress, on Aug. 6, were entirely new. Richard Henry Lee and Samuel Adams, delegates

in Congress, in a coach drawn by six horses, provided by that body, waited upon the minister at his lodgings. A few minutes afterwards the two delegates and M. Gerard entered the coach; the minister's chariot, being behind, received his secretary. The carriages arrived at the State-house a little before one o'clock, when the minister was conducted by Messrs. Lee and Adams to a chair in the Congress chamber, the members of that body and the president sitting; M. Gerard, being seated, presented his credentials into the hands of his secretary, who advanced and delivered them to the president of Congress. The secretary of Congress then read and translated them, which being done, Mr. Lee introduced the minister to Congress, at the same moment the minister and Congress rising. M. Gerard bowed to the president (Henry Laurens) and Congress, and they bowed to him, whereupon the whole seated themselves. In a moment the minister arose, made a speech to Congress (they sitting), and then, seating himself, he gave a copy of his speech to his secretary, who presented it to the president. The president and Congress then rose, when the former made a reply to the speech of the minister, the latter standing. Then all were again seated, when the president gave a copy of his answer to the secretary of Congress, who presented it to the minister. The president, the Congress, and the minister then arose again together. The minister bowed to the president, who returned the salute, and then to the Congress, who bowed in return; and the minister, having bowed to the president, and received his bow in return, withdrew, and was attended home in the same manner in which he had been conducted to the audience. Within the bar of the House, the Congress formed a semicircle on each side of the president and the minister, the president sitting at one extremity of the semicircle, at a table upon a platform elevated two steps, the minister sitting at the opposite extremity of the semicircle, in an arm-chair, upon the same level with the Congress. The door of the Congress chamber being thrown open below the bar, about 200 gentlemen were admitted to the audience, among whom were the vice-presidents of the supreme executive council of Pennsylvania, the supreme executive council, the speaker and members of the assembly, several foreigners of distinction, and officers of the army. The audience being over, the Congress and the minister at a proper hour repaired to an entertainment given by the Congress to the minister, at which were present, by invitation, several foreigners of distinction and gentlemen of public character. Such was the unostentatious manner in which the first foreign minister of the United States was received, and he from the gayest court in Europe. M. Gerard died in Strasburg in April, 1790.

M. GERARD.

Gerhardt, KARL, sculptor; born in Boston, Mass., Jan. 7, 1853. He has made a specialty of portraiture. Among his works are busts of General Grant, Henry Ward Beecher, Mark Twain, and statues of General Putnam, Nathan Hale, and John Fitch.

Germain, LORD GEORGE, VISCOUNT SACKVILLE, statesman; born in England, Jan. 26, 1716; third son of the first Duke of Dorset, lord-lieutenant of Ireland; was educated there; entered the army, and rose to the rank of lieutenant-general. He entered Parliament in 1761, and was made colonial secretary in 1775, ever evincing a most vindictive spirit towards the Americans. He became so unpopular at home that, during the London riots in 1780, he felt compelled to barricade his house in the city. So consonant were his views with those of the King that he was a great favorite at court. His influence over the young King at the time of his coronation, and soon afterwards, was so well known that a handbill appeared with the words, "No Lord George Sack-

ville! No Petticoat Government!" alluding to the influence of the monarch's mother. He died in England, Aug. 26, 1785.

Lord George seemed to take pride and comfort in employing agents who would

LORD GEORGE GERMAIN.

incite the savages of the wilderness to fall on the Americans. He complained of the humanity of Carleton, who, in the autumn of 1776, hesitated to employ the Indians in war; but in Hamilton, governor of Detroit, he found a ready agent in the carrying out of his cruel schemes. Early in September (1776) that functionary wrote he had assembled small parties of Indians in council, and that the Ottawas, Chippewas, Wyandottes, and Pottawattomies, with the Senecas, would "fall on the scattered settlers on the Ohio and its branches"; and saying of the Americans, "Their arrogance, disloyalty, and imprudence has justly drawn upon them this deplorable sort of war." It was Germain and his agents (sometimes unworthy ones) who excited the Indians to scalp and murder the white settlers, without distinction of age or sex, all along the frontier line from New York to Georgia. He reproved every commander who showed signs of mercy in his conduct in this business.

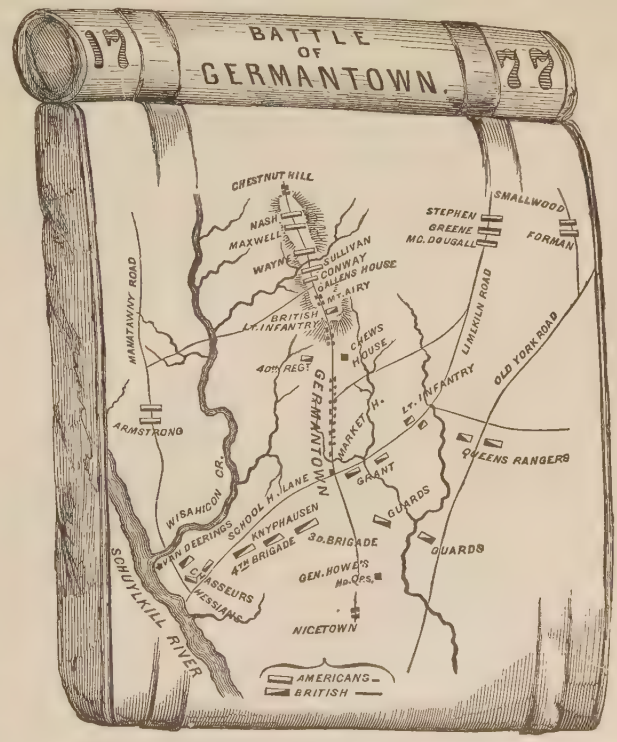
German Flats. Sir William Johnson concluded a treaty of peace with the Western Indians at German Flats, N. Y., in 1765. During the Revolution the Six Nations were induced by him to aid the British, and were led by Joseph Brant and Walter Butler. The Indians plundered and burned Cobleskill, Springfield, German Flats, and Cherry Valley. In retaliation the Americans, led by Colonel Van Schaick and Colonel Willett, laid waste the Indian villages, seizing all provisions and weapons which they could find.

German Mercenaries. Soon after the opening of the British Parliament in the autumn of 1775, that body, stimulated by Lord North, the premier, and Lord George Germain, secretary for the colonies, and at the suggestion of Admiral Howe, promptly voted 25,000 men for service against the Americans. It was difficult to obtain enlistments in Great Britain, and mercenaries were sought in Germany. At the close of the year, and at the beginning of 1776, bargains were effected between representatives of the British government and the reigning princes of Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-Hanau, Brunswick, Anhalt, Anspach, and Waldeck. In the bargains, the fundamental law of trade—supply and demand—prevailed. The King of England had money, but lacked troops; the German rulers had troops, but wanted money. The bargain was a natural one on business principles; the morality of the transaction was another affair. About 30,000 German troops, most of them well disciplined, were hired. The German rulers were to receive for each soldier a bounty of $35, besides an annual subsidy, the whole amounting to a large sum.

The British government agreed to make restitution for all soldiers who might perish from contagious disease while being transported in ships and in engagements during sieges. They were to take an oath of allegiance to the British sovereign during their service, without its interfering with similar oaths to their respective rulers. Their chief commanders, when they sailed for America, were Generals Baron de Riedesel, Baron Knyphausen, and De Heister. The general name of "Hessians" was given to them by the Americans, and, because they were mercenaries, they were heartily detested by the colonists. When any brutal act of oppression or wrong was to be carried out, such as a plundering or burning expedi-

tion, the Hessians were generally employed in the service. The transaction was regarded by other nations as disgraceful to the British. The King of Great Britain shrank from the odium it inflicted, and refused to give commissions to German recruiting officers (for he knew their methods of forcing men into the service), saying, "It, in plain English, amounts to making me a kidnapper, which I cannot think a very honorable occupation." All Europe cried "Shame!" and Frederick the Great, of Prussia, took every opportunity to express his contempt for the "scandalous man-traffic" of his neighbors. Without these troops, the war would have been short. A part of them, under Riedesel, went to Canada (May, 1776); the remainder, under Knyphausen and De Heister, joined the British under Howe, before New York, and had their first encounter on Long Island, Aug. 27. See HESSIANS.

Germantown, BATTLE OF. There were formidable obstructions in the Delaware River below Philadelphia, placed there by the Americans, and also two forts and a redoubt that commanded the stream. The British fleet was in Delaware Bay, Sept. 25, 1777, but could not reach Philadelphia before these obstructions were removed. General Howe prepared to assist his brother in removing these obstructions, and sent strong detachments from his army to occupy the shores of the Delaware below Philadelphia, which the Americans still held. Perceiving the weakening of Howe's army, and feeling the necessity of speedily striking a blow that should revive the spirits of the Americans, it was resolved to attack the British army at Germantown. Washington had been reinforced by Maryland and New Jersey troops. His army moved in four columns during the night of Oct. 3, the divisions of Sullivan and Wayne, flanked by General Conway's brigade on the right, moving by way of Chestnut Hill, while Armstrong, with Pennsylvania militia, made a circuit to gain the left and rear of the enemy. The divisions of Greene and Stephen, flanked by McDougall's brigade (two-thirds of the whole army), moved on a circuitous route to attack the front of the British right wing, while the Maryland and New Jersey militia, under Smallwood and Forman, marched to fall upon the rear of that wing. Lord Stirling, with the brigades of Nash and Maxwell, formed the reserve. Howe's force stretched across the country from Germantown, with a battalion of light infantry and



MAP OF BATTLE.

Simcoe's Queen's Rangers (American loyalists) in the front. In advance of the left wing were other light infantry, to support pickets on Mount Airy, and the extreme left was guarded by Hessian yagers (riflemen). Near the large stone mansion of Chief-Justice Chew (see illustration), at the head of the village, was a strong regiment under Colonel Musgrave.

CHEW'S HOUSE.

Washington's army, moving stealthily, tried to reach Chestnut Hill before the dawn (Oct. 4), but failed. It was near sunrise when they emerged from the woods on that eminence. The whole country was enveloped in a thick fog. The British were surprised. The troops of Wayne and Sullivan fell, unexpectedly and with heavy force, upon the British infantry in front, and they were hurled back upon their main line in confusion by a storm of grape-shot. This cannonade awakened Cornwallis, who was sleeping soundly in Philadelphia, unconscious of danger near. Howe, too, nearer the army, was aroused from slumber, and arrived near the scene of conflict to meet his flying battalions. Then he hastened to his camp, to prepare his troops for action. Musgrave sent a part of his regiment to support the fugitives, and, with six companies, took refuge in Chew's strong dwelling. He barricaded the doors and lower windows, and made it a castle. From its upper windows he poured such a volley of bullets upon Woodford's pursuing brigade that their march was checked. The fire of the American small-arms upon the building was ineffectual. Finally Maxwell's artillerists brought cannon to bear upon the house, but its strong walls resisted the heavy, round shot. Then an attempt was made to set fire to the mansion. This check in the pursuit brought back Wayne's division, leaving Sullivan's flank uncovered. This event, and the failure of Greene to attack at the time ordered, disconcerted Washington's plans. Greene's troops had fallen into confusion in the fog, as they traversed the broken country, but they soon smote the British right with force. The failure of the other troops to co-operate with them by turning the British left caused Greene to fail, and the golden opportunity to strike a crushing blow had passed.

In the fog that still prevailed, parties of Americans attacked each other on the field; and it was afterwards ascertained that, while the assault on Chew's house was in progress, the whole British army were preparing to fly across the Schuylkill, and rendezvous at Chester. At that moment of panic General Grey observed that his flanks were secure, and Knyphausen marched with his whole force to assist the beleaguered garrison and the contending regiments in the village. Then a short and severe battle occurred in the heart of Germantown. The Americans could not discern the number of their assailants in the confusing mist, when suddenly the cry of a trooper, "We are surrounded!" produced a panic, and the patriots retreated in great confusion. The struggle lasted about three hours. The Americans lost about 600 killed, wounded, and missing; the British about 800. Washington fell back to his encampment on Skippack Creek. General Nash, while covering the retreat with his brigade, was mortally wounded.

Geronimo, Apache Indian chief; became a war-chief when sixteen years old, and for almost fifty years led a band of bloodthirsty savages; was a constant terror to the settlers in the Southwest, where he perpetrated many frightful atrocities. He was captured near Prescott, Ariz., in 1886, by Generals Miles and Lawton, after a

continued chase of four years, at the expense of hundreds of lives. He was first

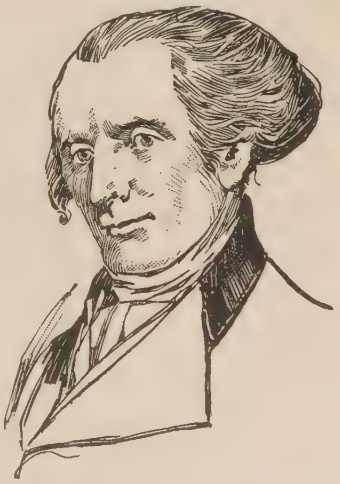
GERONIMO.

imprisoned at Mount Vernon, Ala., but later at Fort Sill, Oklahoma.

Gerrish, THEODORE, author; born in Houlton, Me., June 19, 1846; received an academic education; served in the Civil War, being wounded four times. In 1871–88 he was a Methodist Episcopal minister at various places in Maine. His publications include *Reminiscences of the War; The Blue and the Gray,* etc.

Gerry, ELBRIDGE, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Marblehead, Mass., July 17, 1744; graduated at Harvard in 1762; took part in the early strife before the Revolution, and in 1772 represented his native town in the State legislature. Gerry was the first to propose, in the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts, a law for fitting out armed vessels and establishing a court of admiralty. He took a seat in the Continental Congress early in 1776, signed the Declaration of Independence, and remained in that body, with few intermissions, until 1785. He was an efficient member of finance committees in the Congress, and was president of the treasury board in 1780. A delegate in the convention that framed the national Constitution, he was one of those who refused to sign the instrument. He was a member of Congress from 1789 to 1793, and in 1797 was sent as one of the special envoys on a mission to France. He was elected governor of Massachusetts by the Democratic party in 1810, and in 1812 was chosen Vice-President of the United States. He died in Washington, D. C., while Vice-President, Nov. 23, 1814.

Gerrymandering, a political term employed in the United States since 1812. After a bitter contest for power in Massachusetts between the Federalists and Democrats, the latter succeeded, in 1811, in electing their candidate for governor, Elbridge Gerry, and a majority of both Houses of the legislature. In order to secure the election of United States Senators in the future, it was important to perpetuate this possession of power, and measures were taken to retain a Democratic majority in the State Senate in all future years. The senatorial districts had been formed without any division of counties. This arrangement, for the purpose alluded to, was now disturbed. The legislature proceeded to rearrange the senatorial districts of the State. They divided counties in opposition to the protests and strong constitutional arguments



ELBRIDGE GERRY.

of the Federalists; and those of Essex and Worcester were so divided as to form

a Democratic majority in each of those Federal counties, without any apparent regard to convenience or propriety. The work was sanctioned and became a law by the signature of Governor Gerry, for which act the opposition severely castigated him through the newspapers and at public gatherings. In Essex county the arrangement of the district, in relation to the towns, was singular and absurd. Russell, the veteran editor of the Boston *Continel*, who had fought against the scheme valiantly, took a map of that county, and designated by particular coloring the towns thus selected, and hung it on the wall of his editorial room. One day Gilbert Stuart, the eminent painter, looked at the map, and said the towns which Russell had thus distinguished resembled some monstrous animal. He took a pencil, and with a few touches represented a head, wings, claws, and tail. "There," said Stuart, "that will do for a salamander." Russell, who was busy with his pen, looked up at the hideous figure, and exclaimed, "Salamander! Call it *Gerry-mander*." The word was immediately adopted into the political vocabulary as a term of reproach for those who change boundaries of districts for a partisan purpose.

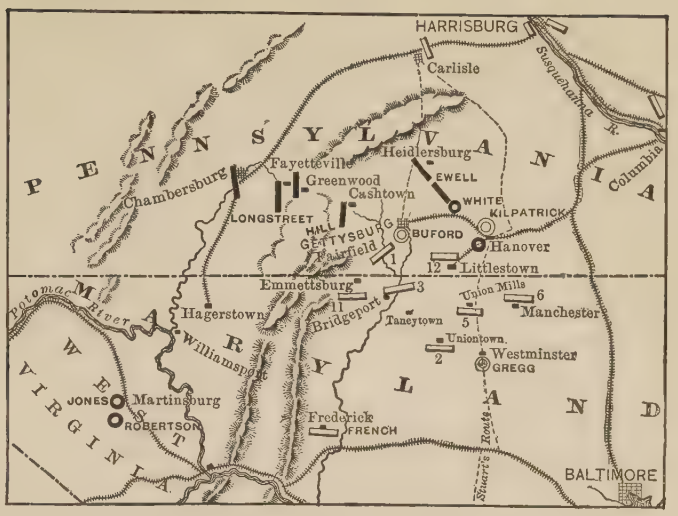
THE GERRY-MANDER.

Gerstaecker, FRIEDRICH, German author; born in Hamburg, Germany, May 16, 1816; emigrated to America in 1837; remained in the country about six years, when he returned to Germany, but subsequently made many trips to every quarter of the globe. He is best known by his writings, originally published in German, but many of which were translated and republished in the United States. Among his writings are *The Regulators of Arkansas; Pictures of the Mississippi; Journey through the United States, Mexico, etc.; Incidents of Life on the Mississippi*, etc. He died in Vienna, Austria, May 31, 1872.

Getty, GEORGE WASHINGTON, military officer; born in Georgetown, D. C., Oct. 2, 1819; was graduated at West Point in 1840; served in the war with Mexico, and in the Seminole War in Florida; and, becoming brigadier-general of volunteers in 1862, did excellent service in the campaign on the Peninsula. He was in the battles of South Mountain, Antietam, and Fredericksburg in 1862; also in the campaign against Richmond in 1864 until August, when he was brevetted major-general of volunteers. He was in the army in the Shenandoah Valley the remainder of the year. He was also in the battle at Sailor's Creek, and at the surrender of Lee. On Aug. 1, 1864, he was brevetted major-general of volunteers, and March 13, 1865, major-general in the regular army. He was commissioned colonel of the 37th Infantry in 1866, and retired Oct. 2, 1883. His last service was as commander of the United States troops along the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad during the riots of 1877. He died in Forest Glen, Md., Oct. 2, 1901.

Gettysburg, BATTLE OF. On the day when General Meade took command of the Army of the Potomac, June 28, 1863, Lee was about to cross the Susquehanna at Harrisburg and march on Philadelphia. The militia of Pennsylvania, who had shown great apathy in responding to the call for help, now, when danger was

at their door, turned out with considerable spirit; and Lee, observing this, and hearing that the augmented Army of the Potomac was in Maryland and threatening his rear and flanks, immediately abandoned his scheme for further invasion, and ordered a retrograde movement. On the same day, Stuart, with a large force of cavalry, crossed the Potomac, pushed on to Westminster, at the right of the Nationals, crossed over to Carlisle, encountering Kilpatrick and his cavalry, and followed Ewell in his march towards Gettysburg. Longstreet had been ordered to cross the South Mountain range, and press on through Gettysburg to Baltimore to keep Meade from cutting Lee's communications. Lee hoped to crush Meade, and then march in triumph on Baltimore and Washington; or, in case of failure, to secure a direct line of retreat into Virginia. Meanwhile Meade was pushing towards the Susquehanna with cautious movement, and on the evening of June 30 he discovered Lee's evident intention to give battle at once. On the day before, Kilpatrick and Custer's cavalry had defeated some of Stuart's a few miles from Gettysburg. Buford's cavalry entered Gettysburg; and on the 30th the left wing of Meade's army, led by General Reynolds, arrived near there. At the same time the corps of Hill and Longstreet were approaching from Chambersburg, and Ewell was marching down from Carlisle in full force. On the morning of July 1 Buford, with 6,000 cavalry, met the van of Lee's army, led by General Heth, between Seminary Ridge (a little way from Gettysburg) and a parallel ridge a little farther west, when a sharp skirmish ensued. Reynolds, who had bivouacked at Marsh Creek, a few miles distant, was then advancing with his own corps, followed by Howard's, having those of Sickles and Slocum within call. The sound of fire-arms quickened his pace, and he marched rapidly to the relief of Buford, who was holding the Confederates in check. While Reynolds was placing some of his troops on the Chambersburg road, the Confederates made an attack, when a volley of musketry from the 56th Pennsylvania led by Col. J. W. Hoffman, opened the decisive battle of Gettysburg.



POSITION OF THE NORTHERN AND CONFEDERATE ARMIES, SUNSET, JUNE 30, 1863.

Meredith's "Iron Brigade" then charged into a wood in the rear of the Seminary, to fall upon Hill's right, under General Archer. The Nationals were pushed back, but other troops, under the personal direction of Reynolds, struck Archer's flank, and captured that officer and 800 of his men. At the moment when this charge was made, the bullet of a Mississippi sharp-shooter pierced Reynolds's neck, when he fell forward and expired. General Doubleday had just arrived, and took Reynolds's place, leaving his own division in charge of General Rowley. Very soon the Mississippi brigade, under General Davis, was captured, and at noon the whole of the 1st Corps, under General Doubleday, was well posted on Seminary Ridge, and the remainder of Hill's corps was rapidly approach-

ing. Meanwhile, the advance division of Ewell's corps had taken a position on a ridge north of the town, connecting with Hill, and seriously menacing the National right, held by General Cutler. Doubleday sent aid to Cutler, when a severe struggle ensued for some time, and three North Carolina regiments were captured. Now the battle assumed far grander proportions. Howard's corps, animated by the sounds of battle on its front, pressed rapidly forward, and reached the field of strife at a little past noon. He left Steinwehr's brigade on Cemetery Hill, placed General Schurz in temporary charge of the corps, and, ranking Doubleday, took the chief command of all the troops in action. The Confederate numbers were continually augmented, and, to meet an expected attack from the north and west, Howard was compelled to extend the National lines, then quite thin, about 3 miles, with Culp's Hill on the right, Round Top on the left, and Cemetery Hill in the centre, forming the apex of a redan. At about three o'clock in the afternoon there was a general advance of the Confederates, and a terrible battle ensued, with heavy losses on both sides. The Nationals were defeated. They had anxiously looked for reinforcements from the scattered corps of the Army of the Potomac. These speedily came, but not until the preliminary engagement in the great battle of Gettysburg was ended.

WHERE THE BATTLE BEGAN.

General Meade was at Taneytown, 13 miles distant, when he heard of the death of Reynolds, and he ordered General Hancock, Howard's junior, to leave his corps with Gibbons and take the chief command at Gettysburg. He arrived just as the beaten forces were hurrying towards Cemetery Hill. He reported to Meade that he was satisfied with Howard's disposition of the troops. The latter had called early upon Slocum and Sickles, and both promptly responded. Sickles joined the left of the troops on Cemetery Hill that night. Hancock had gone back; and, meeting his own corps, posted it a mile and a half in the rear of Cemetery Hill. Meade had now given orders for the concentration of his whole army at Gettysburg, and he aroused them at one o'clock in the morning of July 2, when only the corps of Sykes and Sedgwick were absent. Lee, too, had been bringing forward his troops as rapidly as possible, making his headquarters on Seminary Ridge. On the morning of the 2d a greater portion of the two armies confronted each other. Both commanders seemed averse to taking the initiative of battle. The Nationals had the advantage of position, their lines projecting in wedge-form towards the Confederate centre, with steep rocky acclivities along their front. It was late in the afternoon before a decided movement was made. Sickles, on the left, between Cemetery Hill and Round Top, expecting an attack, had advanced his corps well towards the heaviest columns of the Confederates. Then Lee attacked him with Longstreet's corps. There was first a severe struggle for the possession of the rocky eminence on Meade's extreme left, where Birney was stationed. The Nationals won.

Meanwhile there was a fierce contest near the centre, between Little Round Top and Cemetery Hill. While yet there

BATTLE-GROUND OF LITTLE ROUND TOP.

was strife for the former, General Crawford, with six regiments of Pennsylvania reserves, swept down its northwestern side with tremendous shouts, and drove the Confederates through the woods to the Emmettsburg road, making 300 of them prisoners. Generals Humphreys and Graham were then in an advanced position, the former with his right on the Emmettsburg road, when Hill, advancing in heavy force from Seminary Ridge, fell upon him and pushed him back, with a loss of half his men and three guns. In this onset Sickles lost a leg, and Birney took command of the corps. Elated by this success, the Confederates pushed up to the base of Cemetery Hill and its southern slope, throwing themselves recklessly upon supposed weak points. In this contest Meade led troops in person. Finally Hancock, just at sunset, directed a general charge, chiefly by fresh troops under Doubleday, who had hastened to his assistance from the rear of Cemetery Hill. These, with Humphreys's shattered regiments, drove the Confederates back and recaptured four guns. The battle ended on the left centre at twilight. Then the battle was renewed on the National right, where General Slocum was in chief command. Ewell had attacked him with a part of his corps at the time Longstreet assailed the left. The assault was vigorous. Up the northern slopes of Cemetery Hill the Confederates pressed in the face of a murderous fire of canister and shrapnel to the muzzles of the guns. Another part of Ewell's corps attempted to turn the National right by attacking its weakened part on Culp's Hill. The Confederates were repulsed at the right centre; and, after a severe battle on the extreme right of the Nationals, the Confederates there were firmly held in check. So ended, at about ten o'clock at night, the second day's battle at Gettysburg, when nearly 40,000 men of the two armies, who were "effective" thirty-six hours before, were dead or wounded.

The advantage seemed to be with the Confederates, for they held the ground in advance of Gettysburg which the Nationals had held the previous day. During the night Meade made provision for expelling the Confederate intrusion on the National right by placing a heavy artillery force in that direction. Under cover of these guns a strong force made an attack, and for four hours Geary's division

kept up a desperate struggle. Then the Confederates fell back, and the right was made secure. Now Ewell was repulsed on the right, and Round Top, on the left, was impregnable; so Lee determined to strike Meade's centre with a force that should crush it. At noon (July 3) he had 145 cannon in battery along the line occupied by Longstreet and Hill. All night General Hunt, of the Nationals, had been arranging the artillery from Cemetery Hill to Little Round Top, where the expected blow would fall. Lee determined to aim his chief blow at Hancock's position on Cemetery Hill. At 1 o'clock P.M. 115 of his cannon opened a rapid concentrated fire on the devoted point. Fourscore National guns replied, and for two hours more than 200 cannon shook the surrounding country with their detonations. Then the Confederate infantry, in a line 3 miles in length, preceded by a host of skirmishers, flowed swiftly over the undulating plain. Behind these was a heavy reserve. Pickett, with his Virginians, led the van, well supported, in a charge upon Cemetery Hill. In all, his troops were about 15,000 strong. The cannon had now almost ceased thundering, and were succeeded by the awful roll of musketry. Shot and shell from Hancock's batteries now made fearful lanes through the oncoming Confederate ranks. Hancock was wounded, and Gibbons was placed in command. Pickett pressed onward, when the divisions of Hayes and Gibbons opened an appalling and continuous fire upon them. The Confederates gave way, and 2,000 men were made prisoners, and fifteen battle-flags became trophies of victory for Hayes. Still Pickett moved on, scaled Cemetery Hill, burst through Hancock's line, drove back a portion of General Webb's brigade, and planted the Confederate flag on a stone wall.

But Pickett could go no farther. Then

GENERAL PICKETT AT CEMETERY HILL.

VIEW FROM LITTLE ROUND TOP.

Stannard's Vermont brigade of Doubleday's division opened such a destructive fire on Pickett's troops that they gave way. Very soon 2,500 of them were made prisoners, and with them twelve battle-flags, and three-fourths of his gallant men were dead or captives. Wilcox supported Pickett, and met a similar fate at the hands of the Vermonters. Meanwhile Crawford had advanced upon the Confederate right from near Little Round Top. The Confederates fled; and in this sortie the whole ground lost by Sickles was recovered, with 260 men captives, 7,000 small-arms, a cannon, and wounded Unionists, who had lain nearly twenty-four hours uncared for. Thus, at near sunset, July 3, 1863, ended the battle of Gettysburg. During that night and all the next day Lee's army on Seminary Ridge prepared for flight back to Virginia. His invasion was a failure; and on Sunday morning, July 5, his whole army was moving towards the Potomac.

This battle, in its far-reaching effects, was the most important of the war. The National loss in men, from the morning of the 1st until the evening of the 3d of July, was reported by Meade to be 23,186, of whom 2,834 were killed, 13,709 wounded, and 6,643 missing. Lee's loss was probably about 30,000. The battle-ground is now the National Soldiers' Cemetery, nearly all of the Confederate dead having been removed to Southern cemeteries. The battle-field is now studded with State and regimental monuments marking the most important spots in the three-days' battle. Near the centre of the battle-field stands a national monument of gray granite, erected at a cost of $50,000, and also a bronze statue of General Reynolds.

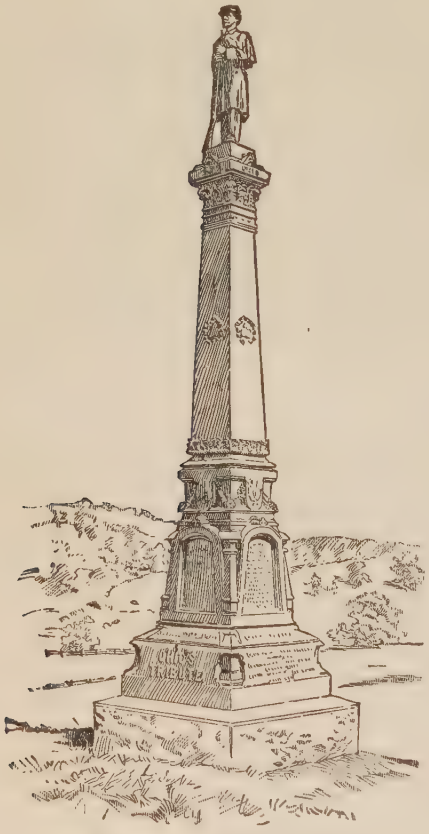
Almost immediately after the battle the government determined to acquire and set apart the battle-field for a National Soldiers' Cemetery. On Nov. 19, 1863, the field, which then contained the graves of 3,580 Union soldiers, was dedicated by President Lincoln, who delivered the following memorable speech:

"Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal.

"Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle-field of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this.

"But, in a larger sense, we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot

hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here have consecrated it, far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little



THE SOLDIERS' MONUMENT AT GETTYSBURG.

note, nor long remember, what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us, that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion, that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain, that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth." See ADAMS, CHARLES FRANCIS; EVERETT, EDWARD.

Ghent, TREATY OF, the treaty between the United States and Great Britain, which terminated the War of 1812. The American commissioners were John Quincy Adams, James Bayard, Henry Clay, Jonathan Russell, and Albert Gallatin; the British commissioners were Lord Gambier, Henry Goulburn, and William Adams. The American commissioners assembled in the city of Ghent, Belgium, in July, 1814; the British commissioners early in the following month. The terms of the treaty were concluded Dec. 24, following, and the ratifications were exchanged Feb. 17, 1815. While the negotiations were in progress the leading citizens of Ghent took great interest in the matter. Their sympathies were with the Americans, and they mingled their rejoicings with the commissioners when the work was done. On Oct. 27 the Academy of Sciences and Fine Arts at Ghent invited the American commissioners to attend their exercises, when they were all elected honorary members of the academy. A sumptuous dinner was given, at which the intendant, or chief magistrate, of Ghent offered the following sentiment: "Our distinguished guests and fellow-members, the American ministers—may they succeed in making an honorable peace to secure the liberty and independence of their country." The band then played *Hail, Columbia.* The British commissioners were not present. After the treaty was concluded, the American commissioners dined the British commissioners, at which Count H. van Steinhuyser, the intendant of the department, was present. Sentiments of mutual friendship were offered. A few days afterwards the intendant gave an entertainment to the commissioners of both nations.

The leading provisions of the treaty were: (1) Restoration of all territory, places, and possessions taken by either party from the other during the war, except the islands mentioned in Article IV. Public property remaining in such places at the time of ratifying the treaty was not to be destroyed or carried away, and the same engagement was made as to

slaves and other private property (Article I.). (2) Article IV. provides the appointment of a commission to decide to which of the two powers certain islands in and near Passamaquoddy Bay belong; and if the commission should fail to come to a decision, the subject was to be referred to some friendly sovereign or state. (3) Articles V.–VIII. provide for several commissions to settle the line of boundary as described in the treaty of 1783, one commission to settle the line from the river St. Croix to where the 45th parallel cuts the river St. Lawrence (called the Iroquois or Cataraqua in the treaty); another to determine the middle of the water communications from that point to Lake Superior; and a third to adjust the

GHENT.

limits from the "water-communication between Lakes Huron and Superior to the most northwestern point of the Lake of the Woods." If either of these commissions should not make a decision, the subject was to be referred to a friendly sovereign or state as before. (4) Article IX. binds both parties to use their best endeavors to abolish the slave-trade, as being "irreconcilable with the principles of humanity and justice."

Gherardi, BANCROFT, naval officer; born in Jackson, La., Nov. 10, 1832; appointed midshipman June 29, 1846; took part in the attack on Fort Macon and in the battle of Mobile Bay; promoted to rear-admiral in 1887; retired Nov. 10, 1894.

Giauque, FLORIEN, author; born near Berlin, O., May 11, 1843; served in the Civil War in 1862–65; graduated at Kenyon College in 1869; admitted to the bar in 1875. His publications include *Revised Statutes of Ohio; Present Value Tables; Naturalization and Election Laws of the United States; Ohio Election Laws*, etc.

Gibault, PETER, Roman Catholic priest. The bishop of Quebec in 1770 sent him to the territory now included in Illinois and Louisiana. He lived a portion of the time in Vincennes, Kaskaskia, Cahokia, and St. Genevieve. During the Revolutionary War, through his influence, the settlers in this territory, who were mostly French, became ardent advocates of the American cause,

and he also induced the Indians to remain neutral. Judge Law says: "Next to Clark and Vigo, the United States are indebted more to Father Gibault for the accession of the States comprised in what was the original Northwest Territory than to any other man."

Gibbes, ROBERT WILSON, historian; born in Charleston, S. C., July 8, 1809; graduated at the South Carolina College in 1827; was the editor of the *Weekly Banner* and the *Daily South-Carolinian*, and was also twice elected mayor of Columbia. During the Civil War he was surgeon-general of South Carolina. Among his writings are *A Documentary History of the American Revolution*, consisting of letters and papers relating to the contest for liberty, chiefly in South Carolina. He died in Columbia, S. C., Oct. 15, 1866.

Gibbes, WILLIAM HASELL, lawyer; born in Charleston, S. C., March 16, 1754; studied law in London, and was one of the thirty Americans living there who signed a petition to the King against the Parliamentary enactments which resulted in the Revolutionary War. He entered the Continental army as captain-lieutenant of artillery. In 1783–1825 he was master in chancery of South Carolina. He died in 1831.

Gibbon, EDWARD, historian; born in Putney, Surrey, England, April 27, 1737; was from infancy feeble in physical constitution. His first serious attempt at authorship was when he was only a youth—a treatise on the age of Sesostris. He was fond of Oriental research. Reading Bossuet's *Variations of Protestantism* and *Exposition of Catholic Doctrine*, he became a Roman Catholic, and at length a free-thinker. He was a student at Oxford when he abjured Protestantism, and was expelled. He read with avidity the Latin, Greek, and French classics, and became passionately fond of historical research. He also studied practically the military art, as a member of the Hampshire militia, with his father. In 1751 he published a defence of classical studies against the attacks of the French philosophers. In 1764 he went to Rome, and studied its antiquities with delight and seriousness, and there he conceived the idea of writing his great work, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*. "It was at Rome," he wrote, "on the 15th of October, 1764, as I sat musing amid the ruins of the Capitol, while barefooted friars were singing vespers in the Temple of Jupiter, that the idea of writing the decline and fall of the city first started to my mind." But that work was not seriously begun until 1770, and the first volume was completed in 1775. In 1774 he became a member of the House of Commons, and at first took sides with the Americans, writing much in their favor. He finally became a firm supporter of the British ministry in their proceedings against the Americans, writing in their defence a pamphlet in the French language, when he was provided by them with a lucrative sinecure office worth $4,000 a year. His mouth (or, rather, pen) was thus stopped by the government favor. To this venality the following epigram alludes. It was written, it is said, by Charles James Fox:

"King George, in a fright, lest Gibbon should write
The story of Britain's disgrace,
Thought no means more sure his pen to secure
Than to give the historian a place.

"But his caution is vain, 'tis the curse of his reign
That his projects should never succeed;
Though he write not a line, yet a cause of *decline*
In the author's example we read."

EDWARD GIBBON.

On the downfall of the North administration, and the loss of his salary, Gibbon left England and went to live at

Lausanne, Switzerland. There he completed his great work in June, 1787, and, sending the manuscript to England, it was issued on his fifty-first birthday. It is said that his booksellers realized a profit on the work of $300,000, while the author's profits were only $30,000. On setting out for England, in the spring of 1793, he was afflicted with a very serious malady, which he had long concealed, until it finally developed into a fatal disorder, which terminated his life suddenly in London, Jan. 16, 1794.

Gibbon, JOHN, military officer; born near Holmesburg, Pa., April 20, 1827; graduated at West Point in 1847; served to the close of the Mexican War in the artillery. During the Civil War he was chief of artillery to General McDowell till May, 1862, when he was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers. His brigade was in constant service, and Gibbon was soon promoted colonel, U. S. A., and major-general, U. S. V. He took part in the battles of the Wilderness, Cold Harbor, and Petersburg. He received the brevet of major-general, U. S. A., March 13, 1865. He published *The Artillerist's Manual.* He died in Baltimore, Md., Feb. 6, 1896.

Gibbons, ABIGAIL HOPPER, philanthropist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 7, 1801; wife of James Sloan Gibbons; was the chief founder of the Isaac T. Hopper Home, and was interested in numerous other charitable movements. During the draft riots of 1863 her home was among the first to be entered by the mob because of her abolition sympathies. She died in New York City, Jan. 10, 1893.

Gibbons, EDWARD, colonist; born in England; came to America in 1629 and settled in Boston; became sergeant-major of the Suffolk regiment in 1644; was major-general of militia in 1649–50. He was a member of the commission of 1643 to establish the confederation of the Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven colonies. He died in Boston, Mass., Dec. 9, 1654.

Gibbons, JAMES, clergyman; born in Baltimore, Md., July 23, 1834; removed to Ireland with his parents at an early age, and there received his preliminary education, and in 1848 returned with his parents to the United States, settling in New Orleans. In 1855 he entered St. Charles College, Maryland, and in 1857 was transferred to St. Mary's Seminary, Baltimore. He was ordained a priest June 30, 1861; was made an assistant in

CARDINAL GIBBONS.

St. Patrick's Cathedral, Baltimore; and soon after was appointed pastor of St. Bridget's Church, in Canton, a suburb of Baltimore. Subsequently he was private secretary to Archbishop Spalding, and chancellor of the diocese. In October, 1866, he was appointed assistant chancellor to the Second Plenary Council of the American Roman Catholic Church, which met in Baltimore, and in 1868 became vicar-apostolic of North Carolina, with the title of bishop. On May 20, 1877, he was appointed coadjutor archbishop of Baltimore, and on Oct. 3 of the same year succeeded to the see. In November, 1884, he presided at the Third National Council at Baltimore. In 1886 he was elevated to the dignity of cardinal, being the second prelate in the United States to attain that high distinction. Cardinal Gibbons boldly put an end to CAHENSLEYISM (*q. v.*) in the United States, and has shown himself to be a thorough American citizen. He is the author of *The Faith of Our Fathers; Our Christian Heritage;* and *The Ambassador of Christ.*

Gibbons, JAMES SLOAN, banker; born in Wilmington, Del., July 1, 1810; settled in New York City in 1835, and engaged in banking. His publications include *The Banks of New York, their Deal-*

ers, the Clearing-House, and the Panic of 1857; The Public Debt of the United States; and a song, *We are Coming, Father Abraham, Three Hundred Thousand More* (popular during the Civil War). He died in New York City, Oct. 17, 1892.

Gibbons, JOSEPH, abolitionist; born in Lancaster, Pa., Aug. 14, 1818; graduated at Jefferson College in 1845; was one of the principal conductors of the "underground railroad," through which institution he and his father aided hundreds of slaves to freedom. He died in Lancaster, Pa., Dec. 8, 1883.

Gibbs, ALFRED, military officer; born in Sunswick, Long Island, N. Y., April 23, 1823; graduated at West Point in 1846; served under Scott in Mexico, and afterwards against the Indians; and when the Civil War broke out he was in Texas. He was made prisoner, and when exchanged in 1862 he was made colonel of the 130th New York Volunteers, and served under Sheridan, in the latter part of the war, in command of a cavalry brigade. He was active in the Army of the Potomac at all times, and was a thoroughly trustworthy officer. In March, 1865, he was brevetted major-general of volunteers. He was mustered out of the service Feb. 1, 1866; was commissioned major of the 7th Cavalry on July 28 following; and served in Kansas till his death, in Fort Leavenworth, Dec. 26, 1868.

Gibbs, GEORGE, historian; born in Astoria, N. Y., July 17, 1815; was attached to the United States boundary commission for many years; did military duty in Washington during the Civil War; was a member of the New York Historical Society for many years and its secretary for six years. Among his works are *Memoirs of the Administrations of Washington and John Adams; A Dictionary of the Chinese Jargon; Ethnology and Philology of America,* etc. He died in New Haven, Conn., April 9, 1873.

Gibson, GEORGE, military officer; born in Lancaster, Pa., Oct. 10, 1747. On the breaking-out of the Revolution he raised a company of 100 men at Fort Pitt, who were distinguished for their bravery and as sharp-shooters, and were called "Gibson's Lambs." These did good service throughout the war. A part of the time Gibson was colonel of a Virginia regiment. In the battle, Nov. 4, 1791, in which St. Clair was defeated, Colonel Gibson was mortally wounded, dying in Fort Jefferson, O., Dec. 14, 1791. His brother JOHN was also a soldier of the Revolution; born in Lancaster, Pa., May 23, 1730; was in Forbes's expedition against Fort Duquesne, and acted a conspicuous part in Dunmore's war in 1774. He commanded a Continental regiment in the Revolutionary War. He was made a judge of the Common Pleas of Alleghany county, and in 1800 was appointed by Jefferson secretary of the Territory of Indiana. He died near Pittsburg, Pa., April 10, 1822.

Gibson, JAMES, merchant; born in London in 1690; became a merchant in Boston, Mass.; took part in the capture of Louisburg, and after its surrender superintended the removal of the prisoners to France. He published an account of the Louisburg expedition, under the title of *A Boston Merchant of 1745.* He died in the West Indies in 1752.

Gibson, JOHN, military officer; born in Lancaster, Pa., May 23, 1740. While still a boy he was with the expedition which captured Fort Duquesne in 1757. He married the Indian chief Logan's sister; took part in the negotiations between Logan and Lord Dunmore in 1774; was in active service throughout the Revolutionary War. In 1801 Jefferson appointed him secretary of the Indiana Territory, which office he held till it became a State. He died at Braddock's Field, Pa., April 10, 1822.

Gibson, PARIS, legislator; born in Brownfield, Me., July 1, 1830; was graduated at Bowdoin College in 1851; removed to Minneapolis, Minn., in 1858, where with W. W. Eastman he built the first flour and woollen mills in the city; member of the convention that framed the constitution of Montana in 1889; elected a State Senator in 1891; and a United States Senator in 1901.

Gibson, RANDALL LEE, statesman; born in Spring Hill, Ky., Sept. 10, 1832; graduated at Yale in 1853; at the beginning of the Civil War enlisted as a private, but soon received a commission as captain in the Louisiana Artillery, and subsequently was elected colonel of the 13th Louisiana Infantry. He took part in the battles of Shiloh, Murfreesboro, and Chickamauga. At Nashville he covered

the retreat of Hood's army. After the war he resumed the practice of law and was elected to the United States House of Representatives, but was not allowed to take his seat until a subsequent election. In 1882 and 1888 he was elected to the United States Senate. He died in Hot Springs, Ark., Dec. 15, 1892.

Gibson, TOBIAS, clergyman; born in Liberty, S. C., Nov. 10, 1771; became a minister of the Methodist Church in 1792; went as a missionary to Natchez in 1800; travelled alone through the forests for 600 miles to the Cumberland River; sailed 800 miles in a canoe to the Ohio River; and then went down the Mississippi. He is noted chiefly for the introduction of Methodism in the Southwest. He died in Natchez, Tenn., April 10, 1804.

Giddings, FRANKLIN HENRY, educator; born in Sherman, Conn., March 23, 1855; graduated at Union College in 1877; became Professor of Sociology in Columbia University in 1894. He is the author of *Democracy and Empire; The Principle of Sociology; Modern Distributive Process; Theory of Socialization,* etc.

Giddings, JOSHUA REED, statesman; born in Athens, Pa., Oct. 6, 1795. His parents removed to Ohio, and in 1812 he enlisted in a regiment under Colonel Hayes, which was sent on an expedition against the Sandusky Indians. In 1826 he was elected to the Ohio legislature; in 1838 to the United States Congress. While still a young man Giddings was known to be an active abolitionist. In 1841 the *Creole* sailed from Virginia to Louisiana with a cargo of slaves who, on the voyage, secured possession of the vessel and put into Nassau, Bahama Islands. In accordance with British law these negroes were declared free men. The United States set up a claim against the British government for indemnity. Giddings offered a resolution in the House to the effect that slavery was an abridgment of a natural right, and had no effect outside of the territory or jurisdiction that created it; and that the negroes on the *Creole* had simply asserted their natural rights. Under the leadership of John Minor Botts, of Virginia, the House censured Giddings, and as it gave him no opportunity for defence he resigned and appealed to his constituents for a re-election. He was sent back within six weeks, and subsequently re-elected, serving in all twenty years. Giddings opposed the annexation of Texas. During the controvêrsy in reference to the northern boundary of the United States he held that the United States was entitled to the line "Fifty-four, forty." He refused to support the candidates of his party if their views on the slavery question were not in conformity with his own. As a result of this opposition ROBERT C. WINTHROP (*q. v.*) failed of an election to the speakership in 1849, the Democratic candidate, HOWELL COBB (*q. v.*), of Georgia, being successful. Giddings opposed the Fugitive Slave Law and the repeal of the Missouri Com-

J R GIDDINGS.

promise. He published a selection of his speeches and *The Rebellion: Its Authors and Causes.* He died in Montreal, Canada, where he was United States consul-general, May 27, 1864.

Gilbert, DAVID MCCONAUGHY, clergyman; born in Gettysburg, Pa., Feb. 4, 1836; graduated at Pennsylvania College in 1857; ordained to the ministry of the Lutheran Church in 1860. His publications include *The Lutheran Church in Virginia, 1776–1876; The Synod of Virginia, Its History and Work; Mühlenberg's Ministry in Virginia, a Chapter of*

Colonial Luthero-Episcopal Church History, etc.

Gilbert, RUFUS HENRY, inventor; born in Guilford, N. Y., Jan. 26, 1832; studied medicine; served as surgeon throughout the Civil War. He is best known through the Gilbert Elevated Railroad Company, which extended from the Battery through Greenwich Street and Ninth Avenue to Thirtieth Street, New York City. This was the first elevated railroad. Soon after the Sixth Avenue railroad was built, and these two were merged into one with the other elevated railroads in New York City, under the title of the Metropolitan Elevated Railroad Company. He died in New York City, July 10, 1885.

Gilbert, SIR HUMPHREY, navigator; born at Compton, near Dartmouth, England, in 1539; half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh. Finishing his studies at Eton and Oxford, he entered upon the military profession; and being successful in suppressing a rebellion in Ireland in 1570, he was made commander-in-chief and governor of Munster, and was knighted by the lord-deputy. Returning to England soon afterwards, he married a rich heiress. In

SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT.

1572 he commanded a squadron of nine ships to reinforce an armament intended for the recovery of Flushing; and soon after his return he published (1576) a *Discourse of a Discoverie for a New Passage to Cathaia and the East Indies.* He obtained letters-patent from Queen Elizabeth, dated June 11, 1578, empowering him to discover and possess any lands in North America then unsettled, he to pay to the crown one-fifth of all gold and silver which the countries he might discover and colonize should produce. It invested him with powers of an absolute ruler over his colony, provided the laws should not be in derogation of supreme allegiance to the crown. It guaranteed to his followers all the rights of Englishmen; and it also guaranteed the absolute right of a territory where they might settle, within 200 leagues of which no settlement should be permitted until the expiration of six years. This was the first colonial charter granted by an English monarch. Armed with this, Gilbert sailed for Newfoundland in 1579 with a small squadron; for he did not believe there would be profit in searching for gold in the higher latitudes, to which Frobisher had been.

He was accompanied by Raleigh; but heavy storms and Spanish war-ships destroyed one of his vessels, and the remainder were compelled to turn back. Gilbert was too much impoverished to undertake another expedition until four years afterwards, when Raleigh and his friends fitted out a small squadron, which sailed from Plymouth under the command of Gilbert. The Queen, in token of her good-will, had sent him as a present a golden anchor, guided by a woman. The flotilla reached Newfoundland in August, and entered the harbor of St. John, where Cartier had found La Roque almost fifty years before. There, on the shore, Gilbert set up a column with the arms of England upon it, and in the presence of hundreds of fishermen from western Europe, whom he had summoned to the spot, he took possession of the island in the name of his Queen. Storms had shattered his vessels, but, after making slight repairs, Gilbert proceeded to explore the coasts southward. Off Cape Breton he encountered a fierce tempest, which dashed the larger vessel, in which he sailed, in pieces on the rocks, and about 100 men perished. The

commander was saved, and took refuge in a little vessel (the *Squirrel*) of ten tons. His little squadron was dispersed, and with the other vessel (the *Hind*), he turned his prow homeward. Again, in a rising September gale, the commander of the *Hind* shouted to Gilbert that they were in great peril. The intrepid navigator was sitting abaft, with a book in his hand, and calmly replied, "We are as near heaven on the sea as on land." The gale increased, and when night fell the darkness was intense. At about midnight the men on the *Hind* saw the lights of the *Squirrel* suddenly go out. The little bark had plunged beneath the waves, and all on board perished, Sept. 9, 1583. Only the *Hind* escaped, and bore the news of the disaster to England.

Gilbert, THOMAS, royalist; born in 1714; took part in the capture of Louisburg in 1745, and also in the attack on Crown Point in 1755. He raised a company of 300 royalists at the request of General Gage, but was obliged to leave the country, as the legislature of Massachusetts had declared him "a public enemy." He died in New Brunswick in 1796.

Gilder, WILLIAM HENRY, explorer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Aug. 16, 1838; served through the Civil War and received the brevet of major at its close. In 1878 he was appointed second in command of the expedition to King William's Land, and while so engaged made a sledge-journey of 3,251 statute miles, the longest on record. In 1881 he was with the *Rodgers* expedition to look for the *Jeannette*. After the *Rodgers* was burned he journeyed from Bering Strait across Siberia, a distance of 2,000 miles, in the depth of winter, and sent a despatch of the misfortune to the Secretary of the Navy. His publications include *Schwatka's Search*, and *Ice-Pack and Tundra*. He died in Morristown, N. J., Feb. 5, 1900.

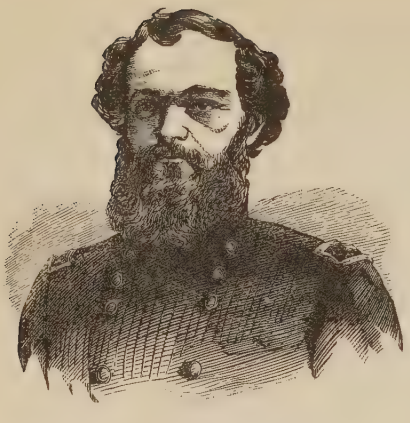
Giles, WILLIAM BRANCH, legislator; born in Amelia county, Va., Aug. 12, 1762; was a member of Congress in 1791–1803, with the exception of two years. Originally a Federalist he soon affiliated with the Democrats; attacked Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, accusing him of corruption; he also opposed the ratification of the treaty with Great Britain in 1796, and opposed the proposed war with France in 1798. He was appointed United States Senator in 1804, and was subsequently elected, serving until March 3, 1815, when he resigned; governor of Virginia in 1826–30, resigning to take part in the Constitutional Convention. He died in Albemarle county, Va., Dec. 4, 1830.

Gillet, RANSOM H., legislator; born in New Lebanon, N. Y., Jan. 27, 1800; elected to Congress in 1833; appointed Indian commissioner in 1837; register of the Treasury in 1845; solicitor of the Court of Claims in 1858. He wrote a *History of the Democratic Party; Life of Silas Wright;* and *The Federal Government*. He died in Washington, D. C., Oct. 24, 1876.

Gillett, EZRA HALL, educator; born in Colchester, Conn., July 15, 1823; graduated at Yale in 1841; appointed Professor of Political Economy in the University of New York in 1868. Among his writings are *History of the Presbyterian Church in the United States; Ancient Cities and Empires*, etc.

Gillmore, JAMES CLARKSON, naval officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., July 10, 1854; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1875; promoted lieutenant in 1891. He was ordered to Manila, Jan. 14, 1899, where he was assigned to the *Yorktown*. In April of that year he was captured with seven others while scouting at Baler, Luzon. After spending over eighteen months in captivity and suffering great privations the party was rescued in the mountains near Cagayan by Col. Luther R. Hare, in December, 1899.

Gillmore, QUINCY ADAMS, military officer; born in Black River, Lorain co., O., Feb. 28, 1825; graduated at West Point in 1849, and entered the engineer corps. He was for four years (1852–56) assistant instructor of engineering at West Point. In October, 1861, he was appointed chief engineer of an expedition against the Southern coasts under Gen. W. T. Sherman. He superintended the construction of the fortifications at Hilton Head, and planned and executed measures for the capture of Fort Pulaski in the spring of 1862, when he was made brigadier-general of volunteers. After service in western Virginia and Kentucky, he was brevet-



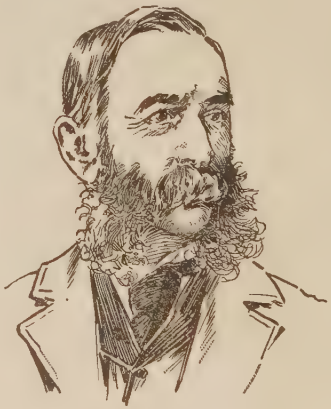
QUINCY ADAMS GILLMORE.

ted colonel in the United States army, and succeeded Hunter (June, 1863) in command of the Department of South Carolina, when he was promoted to major-general. After a long and unsuccessful attempt to capture Charleston in 1862, he was assigned to the command of the 10th Army Corps, and in the autumn of 1863, resumed operations in Charleston Harbor, which resulted in his occupation of Morris Island, the reduction of Fort Sumter, and the reduction and capture of Fort Wagner and Battery Gregg. General Gillmore was the author of many works on engineering and a notable one on *The Strength of the Building Stones of the United States* (1874). For these services during the war he was brevetted major-general in the regular army. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., April 7, 1888.

Gillon, ALEXANDER, naval officer; born in Rotterdam, Holland, in 1741; came to America and settled in Charleston, S. C., in 1766. He captured three British cruisers in May, 1777; was promoted commodore in 1778; and captured the Bahama islands in May, 1782, while commander of a large fleet. He died at Gillon's Retreat, on the Congaree River, S. C., Oct. 6, 1794.

Gilman, ARTHUR, author; born in Alton, Ill., June 22, 1837; was the executive officer of the Harvard Annex, and its regent when it became Radcliffe College. Among his works are *Tales of the Pathfinders; The Discovery of America; The Colonization of America; The Making of the American Nation,* etc.

Gilman, DANIEL COIT, educator; born in Norwich, Conn., July 6, 1831; graduated at Yale University in 1852; and continued his studies in Berlin. In 1856–72 he served as librarian, secretary of the Sheffield Scientific School, and Professor of Physical and Political Geography at Yale University; in 1872 became president of the University of California, where he remained until 1875, when he was chosen president of Johns Hopkins University, which had just been founded. In 1893–99 he was president of the American Oriental Society; in 1896–97 a member of the United States commission on the boundary-line between Venezuela and British Guiana; in 1901 resigned the presidency of the university and became editor-in-chief of *The New International Cyclopædia* and president of the National Civil Service Reform League; and in 1902 was elected president of the Carnegie Institution. He has written *Life of James Monroe; University*



DANIEL COIT GILMAN.

Problems; Introduction to De Tocqueville's Democracy in America; etc.

Gilman, NICHOLAS, legislator; born in Exeter, N. H., Aug. 3, 1755; entered the Continental army in 1776; and served during the remainder of the war. He was with Washington at the surrender of Yorktown, where it became his duty to take an account of the prisoners. In September, 1787, he was a delegate to the

convention to frame the Constitution of the United States; and in 1805–14 held a seat in the United States Senate. He died in Exeter, N. H., May 2, 1814.

Gilman, NICHOLAS PAINE, educator; born in Quincy, Ill., Dec. 21, 1849; was graduated at Harvard Divinity School in 1871; became Professor of Sociology and Ethics in the Meadville Theological School in 1895. He published *Socialism and the American Spirit,* etc.

Gilmer, GEORGE ROCKINGHAM, lawyer; born in Wilkes (now Oglethorpe) county, Ga., April 11, 1790. He was made lieutenant of the 43d Infantry in 1813, and sent against the Creek Indians; was governor of Georgia in 1829–31 and 1837–39. He was the author of *Georgians* (a historical work). He died in Lexington, Ga., Nov. 15, 1859.

Gilmer, THOMAS WALKER, statesman; born in Virginia; governor of the State in 1840; member of Congress, 1841–44, when he became Secretary of the Navy; killed by the explosion of a gun on the *Princeton* ten days later, Feb. 28, 1844.

Gilmor, HARRY, military officer; born in Baltimore county, Md., Jan. 24, 1838; entered the Confederate army at the beginning of the Civil War. In May, 1863, he recruited a battalion of cavalry and was commissioned major. He was the author of *Four Years in the Saddle.* He died in Baltimore, Md., March 4, 1883.

Gilmore, JAMES ROBERTS, author; born in Boston, Mass., Sept. 10, 1823. In July, 1864, with Colonel Jaquess he was sent on an unofficial mission to the Confederate government to see if peace could be established. Jefferson Davis gave answer that no proposition of peace would be considered except the independence of the Confederacy. Mr. Gilmore's publications include *My Southern Friends; Down in Tennessee; Life of Garfield; the Rear-Guard of the Revolution; Among the Pines* (a novel which had a remarkable sale); *John Sevier as a Commonwealth-Builder; The Advance-Guard of Western Civilization;* etc. He died in Glens Falls, N. Y., Nov. 16, 1903.

Gilmore, JOSEPH ALBREE, "war governor"; born in Weston, Vt., June 10, 1811; settled in Concord, N. H., in 1842; elected governor of New Hampshire in 1863 and 1864. When a draft was ordered in 1863, although the spirit of patriotism had somewhat waned, he recruited the 18th Infantry, the 1st Heavy Artillery, and the 1st Cavalry, which brought the whole number of New Hampshire troops supplied during the war up to 31,000, about 10 per cent. of the population. He died in Concord, N. H., April 17, 1867.

Gilmore, PATRICK SARSFIELD, musician and composer; born near Dublin, Ireland, Dec. 25, 1830; was employed for a short time in a mercantile house in Athlone, when his employer, having noticed his remarkable taste for music, hired him to instruct his son in music. In 1849 he came to the United States, went to Boston, and became the leader of a band. His fame as a cornet player soon spread throughout the country. After having been bandmaster in nearly 1,000 concerts he established in 1858 what became popularly known as Gilmore's Band, and which later gave concerts throughout the United States and in more than half of Europe. When the Civil War broke out Gilmore and his band volunteered and went to the front with the 24th Massachusetts Regiment. He was with General Burnside in North Carolina, and later, while in New Orleans, General Banks placed him in charge of all the bands in the Department of the Gulf. After the war he returned to Boston and resumed his profession. In 1869 he organized a great peace jubilee in Boston, in which over 20,000 people, 2,000 musicians, and the best military bands of Europe took part. He conducted a similar grand musical event in 1872. In 1873 he removed to New York, and became bandmaster of the 22d Regiment. During 1873–76 he gave more than 600 concerts in what was known as Gilmore's Garden. In the latter year his band was employed to play at the Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia. Later he took the band to Europe, where he gave concerts in all the principal cities. Two days before his death he was appointed musical director of the World's Columbian Exposition. Among his most popular compositions are *Good News from Home; When Johnny Comes Marching Home;* and *The Voice of the Departing Soul, or Death at the Door* (which was rendered at his own funeral). His anthems are *Co-*

lumbia; Ireland to England; and a national air for the republic of Brazil. He died in St. Louis, Mo., Sept. 24, 1892.

Gilpin, HENRY DILWOOD, lawyer; born in Lancaster, England, April 14, 1801; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1819; began law practice in Philadelphia in 1822; was Attorney-General of the United States in 1840–41. His publications include *Reports of Cases in the United States District Court for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania, 1828–36; Opinions of the Attorney-Generals of the United States, from the Beginning of the Government to 1841.* He also edited *The Papers of James Madison.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 29, 1860.

Girard, STEPHEN, philanthropist; born near Bordeaux, France, May 24, 1750; engaged in the merchant service in early life; established himself in mercantile business in Philadelphia in 1769, and traded to the West Indies until the beginning of the Revolutionary War. Resuming his West India trade after the war, he accumulated a large fortune; but the foundation of his great wealth was laid by events of the negro insurrection in Santo Domingo. Two of his vessels being there, planters placed their effects on board of them, but lost their lives in the massacre that ensued The property of owners that could not be found was left in Girard's possession. In 1812 he bought the building and much of the stock of the old United States Bank, and began business as a private banker. He amassed a large fortune, and at his death, in Philadelphia, Dec. 26, 1831, left property valued at almost $9,000,000. Besides large bequests to public institutions, he gave to Philadelphia $500,000 for the improvement of the city. His most noteworthy gift was $2,000,000 and a plot of ground in Philadelphia for the erection and support of a college for orphans, which was opened Jan. 1, 1848. In it as many poor white orphan boys as the endowment will support are admitted. By a provision of the will of the founder, no ecclesiastic, missionary, or minister of any sect whatever is to hold any connection with the college, or be admitted to the premises as a visitor; but the officers of the institution are required to instruct the pupils in the purest principles of morality, leaving them to adopt their own religious opinions. The beneficiaries are admitted between the age of six and ten years; fed, clothed, and educated; and between the age of fourteen and eighteen are bound out to mechanical, agricultural, or commercial occupations. At the end of 1900 the college reported sixty-seven professors and instructors; 1,731 students, 16,800 volumes in the library, 4,754 graduates, and $15,958,293 in productive funds. A. H. Fetterolf, LL.D., was president.

Girard College. See GIRARD, STEPHEN.

Girty, SIMON, partisan; born in Pennsylvania about 1750; was a spy for the British at Fort Pitt in 1774. When the Revolutionary War broke out he became a leader of the Indians and took part in numerous atrocities. In 1778 he went to Detroit, inciting the Indians on the way to hostility against the United States. He was present when COL. WILLIAM CRAWFORD (*q. v.*) was tortured to death by the savages, and it is alleged that he manifested joy in Crawford's agony. In 1791 he was present at the defeat of Gen. Arthur St. Clair, and while Gen. William Butler lay wounded he ordered an Indian to kill and scalp him. He also took up the cause of the British in the War of 1812. He died in Canada about 1815.

MORDECAI GIST.

Gist, MORDECAI, military officer; born in Baltimore, Md., in 1743; was captain

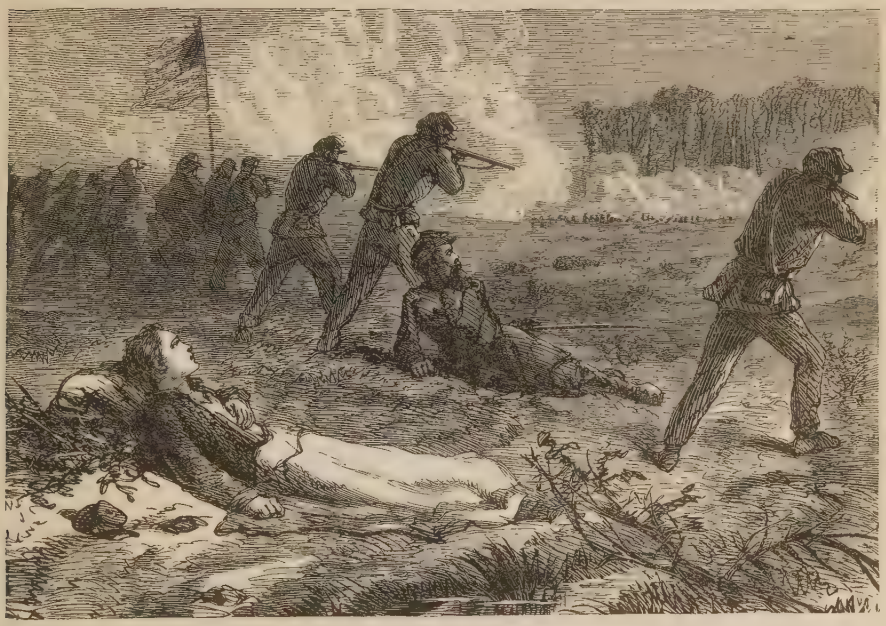
of the first troops raised in Maryland at the breaking out of the Revolution; was made major of Smallwood's regiment in 1776; and commanded it at the battle of Long Island. Promoted to colonel in 1777, and brigadier-general early in 1779, he did good service throughout the war, saving the remnant of the army after Gates's defeat, and being present at the surrender of Cornwallis. He died in Charleston, S. C., Sept. 2, 1792.

Gladden, WASHINGTON, clergyman; born at Pottsgrove, Pa., Feb. 11, 1836; ordained in 1860; connected with the *Independent* as editor, 1871–75, and *Sunday Afternoon,* 1875–82. He has been a successful lecturer and writer for many years. See PROTESTANTISM IN THE UNITED STATES.

Glass. The oldest bottle glass manufactory in the United States was established at Glassboro, N. J., in 1775; a cut-glass manufactory was established at White's Mill, Pa., in 1852. To-day the United States manufactures more glass of almost every variety than any country in the world.

Gleig, GEORGE ROBERT, author; born in Stirling, Scotland, April 20, 1796; was educated at Glasgow and Baliol College. His publications include *Campaigns of Washington and New Orleans,* etc. He died in Berkshire, England, July 11, 1888.

Glendale, or Frazier's Farm, BATTLE OF. There was a sharp contest at White Oak Swamp Bridge on the morning of June 30, 1862, after the Army of the Potomac had passed on its way to the James River. General Franklin had been left with a rear-guard to protect the passage of the bridge and to cover the withdrawal of the wagon-trains at that point. The Confederate pursuers, in two columns, were checked by the destruction of the bridges. Jackson, at noon, was met at the site of the destroyed bridge by the troops of Smith, Richardson, and Nablee, and the batteries of Ayres and Hazard, who kept him at bay during the day and evening. Hazard was mortally wounded, and his force was cut up, but Ayres kept up a cannonade with great spirit. During the night the Nationals retired, leav-



BATTLE OF GLENDALE, OR FRAZIER'S FARM.

ing 350 sick and wounded behind, and some disabled guns. At the same time a sharp battle had been going on at Glendale, or Nelson's, or Frazier's Farm, about 2 miles distant.

Near Willis's Church General McCall's division was posted in reserve, General Meade's division on the right, Seymour's on the left, and that of Reynolds (who was a prisoner) under Col. S. G. Simmons. The artillery was all in front of the line. Sumner was some distance to the left, with Sedgwick's division; Hooker was at Sumner's left; and Kearny was at the right of McCall. Longstreet and Hill had tried to intercept McClellan's army there, but were too late, and found themselves confronted by these Nationals. General Lee and Jefferson Davis were with Longstreet. The Confederates waited for Magruder to come up, and it was between three and four o'clock in the afternoon before they began an attack. Longstreet then fell heavily upon McCall's Pennsylvania reserves, 6,000 strong. He was repulsed by four regiments, led by Colonel Simmons, who captured 200 of his men and drove them back to the woods. Then the fugitives turned, and, by a murderous fire, made the pursuers recoil and flee to the forest. In that encounter the slaughter was dreadful.

The first struggle was quickly followed by others. The contending lines swayed in charges and counter-charges for two hours. The Confederates tried to break the National line. Finally General Meagher appeared with his Irish brigade, and made such a desperate charge across an open field that the Confederates were driven to the woods. Then Randall's battery was captured by the Confederates, when McCall and Meade fought desperately for the recovery of the guns and carried them back. Meade had been severely wounded. Just at dark McCall was captured, and the command devolved on Seymour. Very soon afterwards troops of Hooker and Kearny came to help the reserves, the Confederates were driven to the woods, and the battle at Glendale ended. Before dawn the next morning the National troops were all silently withdrawn; and early the next day the Army of the Potomac, united for the first time since the Chickahominy first divided it, was in a strong position on Malvern Hill, about 18 miles from Richmond.

Glendy, JOHN, clergyman; born in Londonderry, Ireland, June 24, 1755; educated at the University of Glasgow; came to the United States in 1799, and settled in Norfolk, Va.; was chaplain of the House of Representatives in 1815–16. He was the author of *Oration in Commemoration of Washington.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 4, 1832.

Glenn, JAMES, colonial governor; was governor of South Carolina in 1744–55; made a treaty with the Cherokee Indians by which a large piece of territory was ceded to the British government. He was the author of *A Description of South Carolina.*

Glisson, OLIVER S., naval officer; born in Ohio in 1809; entered the navy in 1826; in 1862 was commander of the *Mount Vernon,* which rescued the transport *Mississippi,* on which were General Butler and 1,500 men. This vessel had grounded on the Frying-Pan Shoals, off North Carolina, while on the way to New Orleans. He was promoted rear-admiral in 1870; retired in 1871. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Nov. 20, 1890.

Glover, JOHN, military officer; born in Salem, Mass., Nov. 5, 1732; at the beginning of the Revolution raised 1,000 men at Marblehead and joined the army at Cambridge. His regiment, being composed almost wholly of fishermen, was called the "Amphibious Regiment," and in the retreat from Long Island it manned the boats. It also manned the boats at the crossing of the Delaware before the victory at Trenton. Glover was made brigadier-general in February, 1777, and joined the Northern army under General Schuyler. He did good service in the campaign of that year, and led Burgoyne's captive troops to Cambridge. He was afterwards with Greene in New Jersey, and Sullivan in Rhode Island. He died in Marblehead, Jan. 30, 1797.

Glynn, JAMES, naval officer; born about 1800; joined the navy in March, 1815; served in the Mexican War. In June, 1846, eighteen Americans were wrecked in Yeddo and made prisoners in Nagasaki, Japan. Later Glynn, in command of the *Preble,* ran within a mile of Nagasaki, and through the urgency of his demand

secured the release of all the seamen. This success led Glynn to propose that the United States attempt to open trade with Japan by diplomacy. The plan was successfully carried out by Commodore Perry. Glynn was promoted captain in 1855. He died May 13, 1871.

Gmeiner, JOHN, clergyman; born in Baernan, Bavaria, Dec. 5, 1847; came to the United States in 1849; was ordained a Roman Catholic priest in 1870; became professor of ecclesiastical history and homiletics in the Seminary of St. Francis of Sales, Milwaukee, in 1876. His publications include *The Church and the Various Nationalities of the United States*, etc.

Gobin, JOHN PETER SHINDEL, lawyer; born in Sunbury, Pa., Jan. 26, 1837; became a brevet brigadier-general in the Civil War; brigadier-general of United States volunteers in the war against Spain (1898); lieutenant-governor of Pennsylvania in 1898; commander of the National Guard of Pennsylvania during the coal strike of 1902; State Senator since 1884; and commander-in-chief G. A. R. in 1897–98.

Godfrey, THOMAS, inventor; born in Bristol, Pa., in 1704; was by trade a glazier, and became a self-taught mathematician. In 1730 he communicated to James Logan, who had befriended him, an improvement on Davis's quadrant. In May, 1742, Logan addressed a letter to Dr. Edmund Hadley, in England, describing fully Godfrey's instrument. Hadley did not notice it, when Logan sent a copy of this letter to Hadley, together with Godfrey's account of his inventions, to a friend, to be placed before the Royal Society. Hadley, the vice-president, had presented a paper, a year before, describing a reflecting-quadrant like Godfrey's. They both seem to have hit upon the same invention; and the society, deciding that both were entitled to the honor, sent Godfrey household furniture of the value of $1,000. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., in December, 1749.

Godkin, EDWIN LAWRENCE, journalist; born in Ireland, Oct. 2, 1831; graduated at Queen's College, Belfast, in 1851; was the first editor of the *Nation*, which was merged with the New York *Evening Post* in 1882, which he also edited till 1899. He is the author of *Problems of Democracy; Unforeseen Tendencies of Democracy; Reflections and Comments*, etc. He died in Brixham, England, May 20, 1902. See NEWSPAPERS.

God Save the King (or Queen), the national hymn of Great Britain; supposed to have been written early in the eighteenth century as a Jacobite song, and the air has been, by some, attributed to Handel. It was sung with as much unction in the English-American colonies as in England. The air did not originate with Handel in the reign of George I., for it existed in the reign of Louis XIV. of France. Even the words are almost a literal translation of a canticle which was sung by the maidens of St. Cyr whenever King Louis entered the chapel of that establishment to hear the morning prayer. The author of the words was De Brinon, and the music was by the eminent Lulli. The following is a copy of the words:

"Grand Dieu sauve le Roi!
Grand Dieu venge le Roi!
Vive le Roi!
Que toujours glorieux,
Louis victorieux!
Voye ses ennemis
Toujours soumis!
Grand Dieu sauve le Roi!
Grand Dieu sauve le Roi!
Vive le Roi!"

Other authorities credit Henry Carey with the authorship of both words and music of the English hymn. The music of *My Country, 'tis of Thee* (words by REV. S. F. SMITH, D.D., *q. v.*), is the same as that of *God Save the King.*

Godwin, PARKE, author; born in Paterson, N. J., Feb. 25, 1816; graduated at Princeton in 1834; one of the editors of the New York *Evening Post* from 1836 to 1886. Among his works are *Pacific and Constructive Democracy; Dictionary of Biography; Political Essays;* etc. He died in New York, Jan. 7, 1904.

Goff, NATHAN, statesman; born in Clarksburg, W. Va., Oct. 9, 1843; enlisted in the National army in 1861; Secretary of the Navy in 1881; member of Congress, 1883–89.

Goffe, WILLIAM, regicide; born in England about 1605; son of a Puritan clergyman. With his father-in-law, General Whalley, he arrived in Boston in the summer of 1660, and shared his fortunes in

America, becoming a major-general in 1665. When, during King Philip's War, Hadley was surrounded by the Indians, and the alarmed citizens every moment expected an attack (1675), Goffe suddenly appeared among them, took command, and led them so skilfully that the Indians were soon repulsed. He as suddenly disappeared. His person was a stranger to the inhabitants, and he was regarded by them as an angel sent for their deliverance. Soon after Goffe's arrival in Boston, a fencing-master erected a platform on the Common, and dared any man to fight him with swords. Goffe, armed with a huge cheese covered with a cloth for a shield, and a mop filled with muddy water, appeared before the champion, who immediately made a thrust at his antagonist. Goffe caught and held the fencing-master's sword in the cheese and besmeared him with the mud in his mop. The enraged fencing-master caught up a broadsword, when Goffe cried, "Hold! I have hitherto played with you; if you attack me I will surely kill you." The alarmed champion dropped his sword, and exclaimed, "Who can you be? You must be either Goffe, or Whalley, or the devil, for there are no other persons who could beat me." He died, either in Hartford, Conn., in 1679, or in New Haven, in 1680. See REGICIDES.

Goiogwen. See CAYUGA INDIANS.

Gold. The total production of the world of this metal in the calendar year 1900 amounted in value to $256,462,438, a decrease from $313,645,534 in 1899, owing to the British-Boer war in the former South African (or Transvaal) republic. Among countries the United States led, with $78,658,785; Australia ranking second with $75,283,215; Canada third (because of the Klondike production) with $26,000,000; and Russia, fourth with $23,000,862. The production in the American States and Territories was, in round numbers, as follows: Alabama, $4,300; Alaska, $5,450,500; Arizona, $2,566,000; California, $15,198,000; Colorado, $25,892,000; Georgia, $113.000; Idaho, $1,889,000; Maine, $3,600; Maryland, $800; Michigan, $100; Missouri, $100; Montana, $4,760,000; Nevada, $2,219,000; New Mexico, $584,000; North Carolina, $34,500; Oregon, $1,429,500; South Carolina, $160,000; South Dakota, $6,469,500; Texas, $6,900; Utah, $3,450,800; Vermont, $100; Virginia, $7,000; Washington, $685,000; and Wyoming, $29,200.

Golden Circle, THE. The scheme for establishing an empire whose corner-stone should be negro slavery contemplated for the area of that empire the domain included within a circle the centre of which was Havana, Cuba, with a radius of 16 degrees latitude and longitude. It will be perceived, by drawing that circle upon a map, that it included the thirteen slave-labor States of the American republic. It reached northward to the Pennsylvania line, the old "Mason and Dixon's line," and southward to the Isthmus of Darien. It embraced the West India Islands and those of the Caribbean Sea, with a greater part of Mexico and Central America. The plan of the plotters seems to have been to first secure Cuba and then the other islands of that tropical region, with Mexico and Central America; and then to sever the slave-labor States from the Union, making the former a part of the great empire, within what they called "The Golden Circle." In furtherance of this plan, a secret association known as the "Order of the Lone Star" was formed. Another association was subsequently organized as its successor, the members of which were called "KNIGHTS OF THE GOLDEN CIRCLE" (*q. v.*). Their chief purpose seems to have been the corrupting of the patriotism of the people to facilitate the iniquitous design. The latter association played a conspicuous part as abettors of the enemies of the republic during the Civil War. They were the efficient allies of those who openly made war on the Union.

Golden Gate. See SAN FRANCISCO.

Golden Hill, BATTLE OF. The Boston Massacre holds a conspicuous place in history; but nearly two months before, a more significant event of a similar character occurred in the city of New York. British soldiers had destroyed the Liberty Pole (Jan. 16, 1770), and, two days afterwards, two of them caught posting scurrilous handbills throughout the city, abusing the Sons of Liberty, were taken before the mayor. Twenty armed soldiers went to their rescue, when they

were opposed by a crowd of citizens, who seized stakes from carts and sleds standing near. The mayor ordered the soldiers to their barracks. They obeyed, and were followed by the exasperated citizens to Golden Hill (on the line of Cliff Street, between Fulton Street and Maiden Lane), where the soldiers, reinforced, charged upon their pursuers. The citizens resisted with clubs, and a severe conflict ensued, during which an old sailor was mortally wounded by a bayonet. The mayor appeared and ordered the soldiers to disperse; but they refused, when a party of "Liberty Boys," who were playing ball on the corner of John Street and Broadway, dispersed them. The soldiers made another attack on citizens in the afternoon; and these conflicts continued, with intermissions, about two days, during which time several persons were badly injured. Twice the soldiers were disarmed by the citizens. See LIBERTY POLES.

Golden Horseshoe, KNIGHTS OF THE. Sir Alexander Spottswood in 1716 headed an expedition to visit the country beyond the Blue Ridge Mountains. On their return to Williamsburg, Spottswood had small golden horseshoes made, set with garnets, and inscribed "*Sic juvat transcendere montes,*" which he presented to those who had taken part in the expedition.

Goldsboro, JUNCTION OF NATIONAL ARMIES AT. The Confederates under Hoke fled from Wilmington northward, towards Goldsboro, towards which the Nationals under Schofield were pressing. It was at the railroad crossing of the Neuse River. General Cox, with 5,000 of Palmer's troops, crossed from Newbern and established a depot of supplies at Kingston, after a moderate battle on the way with Hoke. Perceiving the Confederate force to be about equal to his own, Schofield ordered Cox to intrench and wait for expeted reinforcements. On March 10, 1865, Hoke pressed Cox and attacked him, but was repulsed with severe loss—1,500 men. The Nationals lost about 300. The Confederates fled across the Neuse, and Schofield entered Goldsboro on the 20th. Then Terry, who had been left at Wilmington, joined Schofield (March 22), and the next day Sherman arrived there. Nearly all the National troops in North Carolina were encamped that night around Goldsboro. Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, with the combined and concentrated forces of Beauregard, Hardee, Hood, the garrison from Augusta, Hoke, and the cavalry of Wheeler and Hampton, was at Smithfield, half-way between Goldsboro and Raleigh, with about 40,000 troops, mostly veterans.

Goldsborough, CHARLES WASHINGTON, author; born in Cambridge, Md., April 18, 1779; became secretary of the naval board in 1841. He was the author of *The United States Naval Chronicle;* and *History of the American Navy.* He died in Washington, D. C., Sept. 14, 1843.

Goldsborough, JOHN RODGERS, naval officer; born in Washington, D. C., July 2, 1808; entered the navy in 1824; was midshipman on the *Warren* in 1824–30, when the Mediterranean fleet was searching for Greek pirates. He captured the *Helene,* on which were four guns and fifty-eight pirates, with a launch and nineteen men. During the Civil War, while in command of the *Union,* he sunk the *York,* a Confederate steamer, and rendered other important service; retired in 1870. He died in Washington, D. C., June 22, 1877.

Goldsborough, LOUIS MALESHERBES, naval officer; born in Washington, D. C., Feb. 18, 1805; was appointed midshipman in 1821, and lieutenant in 1825. In the SEMINOLE WAR (*q. v.*) he commanded

LOUIS M. GOLDSBOROUGH.

a company of mounted volunteers, and also an armed steamer. Made commander in 1841, he took part in the Mexican War. From 1853 to 1857 he was superintendent of the Naval Academy at Annapolis. In the summer of 1861 he was placed in command of the North Atlantic blockading squadron, and with Burnside commanded the joint expedition to the sounds of North Carolina. For his services in the capture of Roanoke Island Congress thanked him. He afterwards dispersed the Confederate fleet under Lynch in North Carolina waters. He was made rear-admiral July 16, 1862; became commander of the European squadron in 1865; and was retired in 1873. He died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 20, 1877.

Gold Standard Act. The bill in the fifty-sixth Congress, first session, entitled, "An act to define and fix the standard of value, to maintain the parity of all forms of money issued or coined by the United States, to refund the public debt, and for other purposes," as reported from the conference committee of the two Houses, passed the Senate March 6, 1900, by a party vote of 44 to 26 (one Democrat, Mr. Lindsay, of Kentucky, supporting the bill, and one Republican, Mr. Chandler, of New Hampshire, voting against it), and the House of Representatives March 13, by a vote of 166 yeas to 120 nays, ten members present and not voting. The President signed the bill March 14.

By this act the dollar consisting of twenty-five and eight-tenths grains of gold, nine-tenths fine, shall be the standard of value, and all forms of money issued or coined shall be maintained at a parity of value with this gold standard. The United States notes and treasury notes shall be redeemed in gold coin, and a redemption fund of $150,000,000 of gold coin and bullion is set aside for that purpose only. The following is the text of the section carrying out this provision:

"SEC. 2. That United States notes, and Treasury notes issued under the act of July 14, 1890, when presented to the treasury for redemption, shall be redeemed in gold coin of the standard fixed in the first section of this act, and in order to secure the prompt and certain redemption of such notes as herein provided it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to set apart in the treasury a reserve fund of $150,000,000 in gold coin and bullion, which fund shall be used for such redemption purposes only, and whenever and as often as any of said notes shall be redeemed from said fund it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to use said notes so redeemed to restore and maintain such reserve fund in the manner following, to wit:

"First. By exchanging the notes so redeemed for any gold coin in the general fund of the treasury.

"Second. By accepting deposits of gold coin at the treasury or at any sub-treasury in exchange for the United States notes so redeemed.

"Third. By procuring gold coin by the use of said notes, in accordance with the provisions of Section 3,700 of the Revised Statutes of the United States.

"If the Secretary of the Treasury is unable to restore and maintain the gold coin in the reserve fund by the foregoing methods, and the amount of such gold coin and bullion in said fund shall at any time fall below $100,000,000, then it shall be his duty to restore the same to the maximum sum of $150,000,000 by borrowing money on the credit of the United States, and for the debt thus incurred to issue and sell coupon or registered bonds of the United States, in such form as he may prescribe, in denominations of $50 or any multiple thereof, bearing interest at the rate of not exceeding 3 per centum per annum, payable quarterly, such bonds to be payable at the pleasure of the United States after one year from the date of their issue, and to be payable, principal and interest, in gold coin of the present standard value, and to be exempt from the payment of all taxes or duties of the United States, as well as from taxation in any form by or under State, municipal, or local authority; and the gold coin received from the sale of said bonds shall first be covered into the general fund of the treasury and then exchanged, in the manner hereinbefore provided, for an equal amount of the notes redeemed and held for exchange, and the Secretary of the Treasury may, in his discretion, use said notes in exchange for gold, or to purchase or redeem any bonds of the United States, or for any other lawful purpose the public interests may require, except that they shall not be used to meet deficiencies in the current revenues.

"That United States notes when redeemed in accordance with the provisions of this section shall be reissued, but shall be held in the reserve fund until exchanged for gold, as herein provided; and the gold coin and bullion in the reserve fund, together with the redeemed notes held for use as provided in this section, shall at no time exceed the maximum sum of $150,000,000."

The legal tender quality of the silver dollar and other money coined or issued by the United States is not affected by the act.

The deposit of gold coin with the treas-

urer, and the issue of gold certificates therefor, and the coinage of silver bullion in the treasury into subsidiary silver coin are provided for.

The National Bank Law is amended to permit banks to be created with $25,000 capital in places whose population does not exceed 3,000. Provision is made for the refunding of outstanding bonds at a low rate of interest, and under it bonds bearing 3, 4, and 5 per cent. interest have been refunded for bonds bearing 2 per cent. The following are the sections covering these amendments:

"SEC. 10. That Section 5,138 of the Revised Statutes is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

"'Section 5,138. No association shall be organized with a less capital than $100,000, except that banks with a capital of not less than $50,000 may, with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, be organized in any place the population of which does not exceed 6,000 inhabitants, and except that banks with a capital of not less than $25,000 may, with the sanction of the Secretary of the Treasury, be organized in any place the population of which does not exceed 3,000 inhabitants. No association shall be organized in a city the population of which exceeds 50,000 persons with a capital of less than $200,000.'

"SEC. 11. That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized to receive at the treasury any of the outstanding bonds of the United States bearing interest at 5 per centum per annum, payable February 1, 1904, and any bonds of the United States bearing interest at 4 per centum per annum, payable July 1, 1907, and any bonds of the United States bearing interest at 3 per centum per annum, payable August 1, 1908, and to issue in exchange therefor an equal amount of coupon or registered bonds of the United States in such form as he may prescribe, in denominations of $50 or any multiple thereof, bearing interest at the rate of 2 per centum per annum, payable quarterly, such bonds to be payable at the pleasure of the United States after thirty years from the date of their issue, and said bonds to be payable, principal and interest, in gold coin of the present standard value, and to be exempt from the payment of all taxes or duties of the United States, as well as from taxation in any form by or under State, municipal, or local authority.

"Provided, That such outstanding bonds may be received in exchange at a valuation not greater than their present worth to yield an income of 2¼ per centum per annum; and in consideration of the reduction of interest effected, the Secretary of the Treasury is authorized to pay to the holders of the outstanding bonds surrendered for exchange, out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, a sum not greater than the difference between their present worth, computed as aforesaid, and their par value, and the payments to be made hereunder shall be held to be payable on account of the sinking-fund created by Section 3,694 of the Revised Statutes.

"And provided further, That the 2 per centum bonds to be issued under the provisions of this act shall be issued at not less than par, and they shall be numbered consecutively in the order of their issue, and when payment is made the last numbers issued shall be first paid, and this order shall be followed until all the bonds are paid, and whenever any of the outstanding bonds are called for payment interest thereon shall cease three months after such call; and there is hereby appropriated out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, to effect the exchanges of bonds provided for in this act, a sum not exceeding one-fifteenth of 1 per centum of the face value of said bonds, to pay the expense of preparing and issuing the same and other expenses incident thereto."

Section 12 provides for the issue of circulating notes to banks on deposit of bonds, and for additional deposits when there is a depreciation in the value of bonds. The total amount of notes issued by any national banking association may equal at any time, but shall not exceed, the amount at any such time of its capital stock actually paid in.

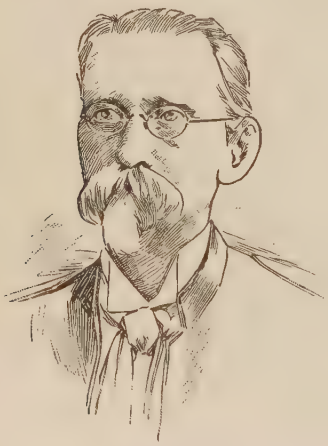
Every national banking association shall pay a tax in January and July of one-fourth of 1 per cent. on the average amount of such of its notes in circulation as are based on its deposit of 2 per cent. bonds, and such taxes shall be in lieu of the taxes on its notes in circulation imposed by Section 5,214 of the Revised Statutes. Provision for international bimetallism is made in the final section of the act, which is as follows:

"SEC. 14. That the provisions of this act are not intended to preclude the accomplishment of international bimetallism whenever conditions shall make it expedient and practicable to secure the same by concurrent action of the leading commercial nations of the world and at a ratio which shall insure permanence of relative value between gold and silver."

Goliad, MASSACRE AT. See FANNIN, JAMES W.

Gomez, MAXIMO, military officer; born of Spanish parents in Bani, San Domingo, in 1838. He entered the Spanish army, and served as a lieutenant of cavalry during the last occupation of that island by Spain. In the war with Haiti he greatly

distinguished himself in the battle of San Tome, where with twenty men he routed a much superior force. After San Domingo became free he went with the Spanish troops to Cuba, and for a time was in Santiago. Becoming dissatisfied with the way in which the Spanish general, Villar, treated some starving Cuban refugees he called him a coward and personally assaulted him. He at once became a bitter enemy of Spain, left the Spanish army, and settled down as a planter; but when the Ten Years' War broke out in 1868 he joined the insurgents and received a command from the Cuban president, Cespedes. Along with the latter and General Agramonte, he captured Jugnani, Bayamo, Tunas, and Holguin. He also took Guaimaro, Nuevitas, Santa Cruz, and



MAXIMO GOMEZ.

Cascorro, and fought in the battles of Palo Sico and Las Guasimas. Later he invaded Santa Clara and defeated General Jovellar. He was promoted to the rank of major-general, and when General Agramonte died succeeded him as commander-in-chief. When Gen. Martinez Campos was sent to Cuba in 1878 and succeeded in persuading the Cuban leaders to make terms of peace, General Gomez withdrew to Jamaica, refusing to remain under Spanish rule. Subsequently he went to San Domingo, where he lived on a farm until the beginning of the revolution in 1895. When José Marti, who had been proclaimed president of the new revolutionary party, sent for him he promptly responded. Landing secretly on the Cuban shore with Maceo and Marti, he pledged his faith with theirs, and began the war which ended with the American occupation in 1898. On Feb. 24, 1899, he was permitted to march through Havana with an escort of 2,500 of his soldiers, and on the following night was given a grand reception and banquet in that city by the United States military authorities. In the following month the Cuban military assembly removed him from his command as general-in-chief of the Cuban army, because the United States authorities treated with him instead of it concerning the distribution of $3,000,000 among the *bona-fide* Cuban soldiers; but he ignored the action of the assembly and gave invaluable assistance to General Brooke, then American governor-general. See CUBA; GARCIA, CALIXTO.

Gonannhatenha, FRANCES, Indian squaw; born in Onondaga, N. Y.; converted to Christianity; captured by a hostile party; was tortured, and entreated by a relative to recant. She refused, and was killed in Onondaga, N. Y., in 1692.

Gompers, SAMUEL, labor leader; born in England, Jan. 27, 1850; an advocate of trades-unions for thirty-five years; one of the founders of the American Federation of Labor and its president, with the exception of one year, since 1882. He has written largely on the labor question.

Gooch, SIR WILLIAM, colonial governor; born in Yarmouth, Eng., Oct. 21, 1681; had been an officer under Marlborough, and in 1740 commanded in the unsuccessful attack on Carthagena. In 1746 he was made a brigadier-general and was knighted, and in 1747 a major-general. He ruled with equity in Virginia, and was never complained of. He returned to England in 1749, and died in London, Dec. 17, 1751.

Good, JAMES ISAAC, clergyman; born in York, Pa., Dec. 31, 1850; graduated at Lafayette College in 1872, and later at Union Theological Seminary; ordained a minister of the German Reformed Church; became Professor of Dogmatics and Pastoral Theology at Ursinus College, Philadelphia, in 1893. His publications in-

clude *History of the Reformed Church in the United States*, etc.

Goode, William Athelstane Meredith, author; born in Newfoundland, June 10, 1875; was a correspondent on board the flag-ship *New York* for the Associated Press during the war with Spain. He is the author of *With Sampson Through the War.*

Goodrich, Aaron, jurist; born in Sempronius, N. Y., July 6, 1807; was admitted to the bar and began practice in Stewart county, Tenn.; secretary of the United States legation at Brussels in 1861–69. He published *A History of the Character and Achievements of the So-called Christopher Columbus.*

Goodrich, Charles Augustus, clergyman; born in Ridgefield, Conn., in 1790; graduated at Yale College in 1812. His publications include *Lives of the Signers; History of the United States of America; Child's History of the United States; Great Events of American History*, etc. He died in Hartford, Conn., Jan. 4, 1862.

Goodrich, Frank Boott, author; born in Boston, Mass., Dec. 14, 1826; graduated at Harvard College in 1845. His publications include *History of Maritime Adventure, Exploration, and Discovery; The Tribute-book, a Record of the Munificence, Self-sacrifice, and Patriotism of the American People during the War for the Union.* He died in Morristown, N. J., March 15, 1894.

Goodrich, Samuel Griswold, author; popularly known as "Peter Parley"; born in Ridgefield, Conn., Aug. 19, 1793; was a publisher in Hartford in 1824; soon afterwards he settled in Boston, and for many years edited *The Token.* He began the issuing of *Peter Parley's Tales* in 1827, and continued them until 1857. He also published geographical and historical school-books. From 1841 to 1854 he edited and published *Merry's Museum* and *Parley's Magazine.* Of 170 volumes written by him, 116 bear the name of "Peter Parley"; and more than 7,000,000 copies of his books for the young have been sold. Mr. Goodrich was American consul at Paris during Fillmore's administration. He died in New York City, May 9, 1860.

Good Roads. Prior to the advent and popularity of the bicycle, the matter of improving the public thoroughfares of the country, particularly in suburban districts, was almost entirely in the hands of county, township, and village officials. As the wheel grew in popularity, and people found it an admirable means of travel an agitation sprang up for the better improvement of roads leading through various parts of the country which the devotees of the wheel had come to patronize. This agitation by petitions and bills personally introduced was soon manifested in State legislatures and boards of county commissioners. In the Middle States, particularly, the movement for good roads was actively promoted by the League of American Wheelmen, which issued numerous guide-maps for "century" runs, showing the best roads for wheelmen between popular points. State Good Roads associations were formed, and these in turn formed a national, or interstate, association. The latter body held a convention in Chicago in November, 1900, with delegates from thirty-eight States present. The State associations operate principally in their respective territories with a view of securing the improvements of the roads therein, while the national association seeks to secure congressional action for the improvement of the highways of the country. Much had already been accomplished at the time of this convention, and the radical improvements were undoubtedly due first to the wide-spread use of the bicycle and more recently to that of the automobile.

Good Templars, Independent Order of, an organization the members of which pledge themselves not to make, buy, sell, furnish, or cause to be furnished, intoxicating liquors to others as a beverage. It originated in the United States in 1851, and in Birmingham, England, in 1868. The order has since developed into an international organization, with supreme headquarters in Birmingham, England. In 1901 there were over 100 grand lodges and a membership of nearly 500,000. The order has a membership in nearly every State in the Union, and it also has a juvenile branch comprising about 200,000 members.

Goodwin, Daniel, lawyer; born in New York City, Nov. 26, 1832; graduated at Hamilton College in 1852; admitted to the bar; became United States commissioner

for Illinois in 1861. He published *James Pitts and His Sons in the American Revolution*, etc.

Goodwin, NATHANIEL, genealogist; born in Hartford, Conn., March 5, 1782. His publications include *Descendants of Thomas Olcott; The Foote Family;* and *Genealogical Notes of Some of the First Settlers of Connecticut and Massachusetts.* He died in Hartford, Conn., May 29, 1855.

Goodwin, WILLIAM FREDERICK, author; born in Limington, Me., Sept. 27, 1823; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1848; began law practice in Concord, N. H., in 1855; served with distinction in the Civil War; was promoted captain in 1864. His publications include a *History of the Constitution of New Hampshire of 1776, 1784, 1792; Record of Narragansett Township, No. 1,* etc. He died in Concord, N. H., March 12, 1872.

Goodyear, CHARLES, inventor; born in North Haven, Conn., Dec. 29, 1800; was an early manufacturer of India rubber, and made vast improvements in its practical use in the arts. His first important discovery was made in 1836—a method of treating the surface of the gum. This process was superseded by his discovery early in 1849 of a superior method of vulcanization. He procured patent after patent for improvements in this method, until he had more than sixty in number, in America and Europe. He obtained the highest marks of distinction at the international exhibitions at London and Paris. He saw, before his death, his material applied to almost 500 uses, and to give employment in England, France, Germany, and the United States to about 60,000 persons. He died in New York City, July 1, 1860.

Gookin, DANIEL, military officer; born in Kent, England, about 1612; removed to Virginia with his father in 1621; settled in Cambridge, Mass., in 1644; became major-general of the colony in 1681. He was author of *Historical Collections of the Indians of Massachusetts.* He died in Cambridge, Mass., March 19, 1687.

Gordon, ANTHONY. See JESUIT MISSIONS.

Gordon, ARMISTEAD CHURCHILL, lawyer; born in Albemarle county, Va., Dec. 20, 1855; was admitted to the bar in 1879. His publications include *Congressional Currency; Befo' de War; Echoes in Negro Dialect* (with Thomas Nelson Page); and *For Truth and Freedom: Poems of Commemoration.*

Gordon, GEORGE HENRY, military officer; born in Charlestown, Mass., July 19, 1825; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1846; served in the war with Mexico, participating in the siege of Vera Cruz, the actions of Cerro Gordo, Contreras, and Chapultepec, and the capture of the city of Mexico. During the Civil War his bravery was conspicuous in many battles. He received the brevet of major-general of volunteers in April, 1865. He was the author of *The Army of Virginia from Cedar Mountain to Alexandria; A War Diary;* and *From Brook to Cedar Mountain.* He died in Framingham, Mass., Aug. 30, 1886.

Gordon, JOHN BROWN, military officer; born in Upson county, Ga., Feb. 6, 1832; was educated at the University of Georgia; studied law; was admitted to the bar, and shortly after he began to practise the Civil War broke out, and he entered the Confederate army as a captain of infantry. He passed successively through all grades to the rank of lieutenant-general. During the war he was wounded in battle eight times, the wound received at Antietam being very severe. He was a candidate for governor of Georgia on the Democratic ticket in 1868, and claimed the election, but his Republican opponent, Rufus B. Bullock, was given the office. He was a member of the National Democratic conventions of 1868 and 1872, and presidential elector for the same years. He was elected to the United States Senate in 1873; re-elected in 1879; resigned in 1880, and again elected in 1891; and was governor of Georgia in 1887–90. On May 31, 1900, he was elected commander-in-chief of the United Confederate Veterans. General Gordon attained wide popularity as a lecturer on the events of the Civil War. He died in Miami, Fla., Jan. 9, 1904.

Gordon, PATRICK, colonial governor; born in England in 1644; became governor of Pennsylvania in 1726. He was the author of *Two Indian Treaties at Conestogoe.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Aug. 5, 1736.

Gordon, THOMAS F., historian; born in Philadelphia, Pa., in 1787; practised law. His publications include *Digest of the Laws of the United States; History of Pennsylvania from its Discovery to 1776; History of New Jersey from its Discovery to 1789; History of America; Gazetteer of New Jersey; Gazetteer of New York,* and *Gazetteer of Pennsylvania.* He died in Beverly, N. J., Jan. 17, 1860.

Gordon, WILLIAM, historian; born in Hitchin, England, in 1730; came to America in 1770; and was ordained at Roxbury in 1772. He took an active part in public affairs during the Revolution, and in 1778 the College of New Jersey conferred upon him the degree of doctor of divinity. Returning to England in 1786, he wrote and published a history of the Revolution, in 4 volumes, octavo. He died in Ipswich, England, Oct. 19, 1807.

Gordy, WILBUR FISK, educator; born near Salisbury, Md., June 14, 1854; graduated at Wesleyan University in 1880; later became supervising principal of the Hartford (Conn.) public schools. He is author of *A School History of the United States,* and joint author of *The Pathfinder in American History.*

Gorges, SIR FERDINANDO, colonial proprietor; born in Ashton Phillips, Somerset, England, about 1565; was associated with the courtiers of Queen Elizabeth; was engaged in the conspiracy of the Earl of Essex against the Queen's council (1600); and testified against him at his trial for treason (1601). Having served in the royal navy with distinction, he was appointed governor of Plymouth in 1604. A friend of Raleigh, he became imbued with that great man's desire to plant a colony in America, and when Captain Weymouth returned from the New England coast (1605), and brought captive natives with him, Gorges took three of them into his own home, from whom, after instructing them in the English language, he gained much information about their country. Gorges now became chiefly instrumental in forming the PLYMOUTH COMPANY (*q. v.*), to settle western Virginia, and from that time he was a very active member, defending its rights before Parliament, and stimulating by his own zeal his desponding associates. In 1615, after the return of CAPT. JOHN SMITH (*q. v.*), he set sail for New England, but a storm compelled the vessel to put back, while another vessel, under CAPT. THOMAS DERMER (*q. v.*), prosecuted the voyage. Gorges sent out a party (1616), which encamped on the River Saco through the winter; and in 1619–20 Captain Dermer repeated the voyage. The new charter obtained by the company created such a despotic monopoly that it was strongly opposed in and out of Parliament, and was finally dissolved in 1635. Gorges had, meanwhile, prosecuted colonization schemes with vigor. With John Mason and others he obtained grants of land (1622), which now compose a part of Maine and New Hampshire, and settlements were attempted there. His son Robert was appointed "general governor of the country," and a settlement was made (1624) on the site of York, Me. After the dissolution of the company (1635), Gorges, then a vigorous man of sixty years, was appointed (1637) governor-general of New England, with the powers of a palatine, and prepared to come to America, but was prevented by an accident to the ship in which he was to sail. He made laws for his palatinate, but they were not acceptable. Gorges enjoyed his viceregal honors a few years, and died in England in 1647.

His son Robert had a tract of land bestowed upon him in New England, on the coast of Massachusetts Bay, extending 10 miles along the coast and 30 miles inland. He was appointed lieutenant-general of New England, with a council, of whom Francis West, who had been commissioned "Admiral of New England," by the council of Plymouth, and the governor of New Plymouth for the time being, were to be members, having the power to restrain interlopers. West, as admiral, attempted to force tribute from the fishing-vessels on the coast. Gorges brought to New England with him a clergyman named Morrell, appointed by the Archbishop of Canterbury, to act as commissioner of ecclesiastical affairs; also a number of indentured servants. After being a year at Plymouth, Gorges attempted to plant a colony at Wissagus. He had encountered Weston,

who came over to look after his colony, and took proceedings against him as an interloper. See WESTON'S COLONY.

Gorham, NATHANIEL, statesman; born in Charlestown, Mass., May 27, 1738; was a delegate to the Continental Congress (1782–83 and from 1785 to 1787); and was chosen its president in June, 1786. He was a member of the convention that framed the national Constitution, and exerted great power in procuring its ratification by Massachusetts. He died in Charlestown, June 11, 1796. See HOLLAND LAND COMPANY.

Gorman, ARTHUR PUE, legislator; born in Howard county, Md., March 11, 1839; was a page in the United States Senate in 1852–66; collector of internal revenue for the Fifth District of Maryland in 1866–69; appointed director of the Chesapeake & Ohio Canal Company in the latter year, becoming president in 1872; was a State Senator in 1875–81; member of the Maryland House of Delegates in 1869–75; and a United States Senator in 1881–99 and in 1903–09. In March, 1903, he was chosen the Democratic leader in the United States Senate.

Gorrie, PETER DOUGLAS, clergyman; born in Glasgow, Scotland, April 21, 1813; came to the United States in 1820, and was ordained in the Methodist Episcopal Church. He was the author of *The Churches and Sects in the United States; Black River Conference Memorial;* etc. He died in Potsdam, N. Y., Sept. 12, 1884.

Gorringe, HENRY HONEYCHURCH, naval officer; born in Barbadoes, W. I., Aug. 11, 1841; came to the United States in early life; served through the Civil War with marked distinction; was promoted lieutenant-commander in December, 1868. He became widely known in 1880–81 through having charge of the transportation of the Egyptian obelisk (Cleopatra's Needle) presented to the United States by the Khedive of Egypt, and erected in Central Park, New York City, Jan. 23, 1881. The total cost of transportation—$100,000—was paid by William H. Vanderbilt. Gorringe published a *History of Egyptian Obelisks.* He died in New York City, July 7, 1885.

Gorton, SAMUEL, clergyman; born in England about 1600; was a clothier in London, and embarked for Boston in 1636, where he soon became entangled in theological disputes and removed to Plymouth. There he preached such heterodox doctrines that he was banished as a heretic in the winter of 1637–38. With a few followers he went to Rhode Island, where he was publicly whipped for calling the magistrates "just-asses," and other rebellious acts. In 1641 he was compelled to leave the island. He took refuge with Roger Williams at Providence, but soon made himself so obnoxious there that he escaped public scorn by removing (1642) to a spot on the west side of Narraganset Bay, where he bought land of Miantonomoh and planted a settlement. The next year inferior sachems disputed his title to the land; and, calling upon Massachusetts to assist them, an armed force was sent to arrest Gorton and his followers, and a portion of them were taken to Boston and tried as "damnable heretics." For a while they endured confinement and hard labor, in irons, and in 1644 they were banished from the colony. Gorton went to England and obtained from the Earl of Warwick an order that the clergyman and his followers should have peace at the settlement they had chosen. He called the place Warwick when he returned to it in 1648. There he preached on Sunday and performed civil service during the week. He died in Rhode Island late in 1677.

Gosnold, BARTHOLOMEW, navigator; born in England; date unknown; became a stanch friend of Sir Walter Raleigh. Because of Raleigh's failure, he did not lose faith. The long routes of the vessels by way of the West Indies seemed to him unnecessary, and he advocated the feasibility of a more direct course across the Atlantic. He was offered the command of an expedition by the Earl of Southampton, to make a small settlement in the more northerly part of America; and on April 26, 1602, Gosnold sailed from Falmouth, England, in a small vessel, with twenty colonists and eight mariners. He took the proposed shorter route, and touched the continent near Nahant, Mass., it is supposed, eighteen days after his departure from England. Finding no good harbor there, he sailed southward, discovered and named Cape Cod, and landed there.

This was the first time the shorter (present) route from England to New York and Boston had been traversed; and it was the first time an Englishman set foot on New England soil. Gosnold passed around the cape, and entered Buzzard's Bay, where he found an attractive group of Islands, and he named the westernmost Elizabeth, in honor of his Queen. The whole group bear that name. He and his followers landed on Elizabeth Island, and were charmed with the luxuriance of vegetation, the abundance of small fruits, and the general aspect of nature.

Gosnold determined to plant his colony there, and on a small rocky island, in the bosom of a great pond, he built a fort; and, had the courage of the colonists held out, Gosnold would have had the immortal honor of making the first permanent English settlement in America. Afraid of the Indians, fearing starvation, wondering what the winter would be, and disagreeing about the division of profits, they were seized with a depressing homesickness. So, loading the vessel with sassafras-root (then esteemed in Europe for its medicinal qualities), furs gathered from the natives, and other products, they abandoned the little paradise of beauty, and in less than four months after their departure from England they had returned; and, speaking in glowing terms of the land they had discovered, Raleigh advised the planting of settlements in that region, and British merchants afterwards undertook it. Elizabeth Island now bears its original name of Cottyunk. Gosnold soon afterwards organized a company for colonization in Virginia. A charter was granted him and his associates by James I., dated April 10, 1606, the first under which the English were settled in America. He sailed Dec. 19, 1606, with three small vessels and 105 adventurers, of whom only twelve were laborers; and, passing between Capes Henry and Charles, went up the James River in April, 1607, and landed where they built Jamestown afterwards. The place was an unhealthful one, and Gosnold remonstrated against founding the settlement there, but in vain. Sickness and other causes destroyed nearly half the number before autumn. Among the victims was Gosnold, who died Aug. 22, 1607.

Gospel, Society for the Propagation of the. Edward Winslow (*q. v.*), the third governor of the Plymouth colony, became greatly interested in the spiritual concerns of the Indians of New England; and when, in 1649, he went to England on account of the colony, he induced leading men there to join in the formation of a society for the propagation of the Gospel among the natives in America. The society soon afterwards began its work in America, and gradually extended its labors to other English colonies. In 1701 (June 16) it was incorporated under the title of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. William III. zealously promoted the operations of the society, for he perceived that in a community of religion there was security for political obedience. The society still exists, and its operations are widely extended over the East and West Indies, Southern Africa, Australia, and islands of the Southern Ocean.

Gosport Navy-Yard. See Norfolk.

Goss, Elbridge Henry, author; born in Boston, Mass., Dec. 22, 1830; received a common-school education. His publications include *Early Bells of Massachusetts; Centennial Fourth Address; Life of Col. Paul Revere; History of Melrose,* etc.

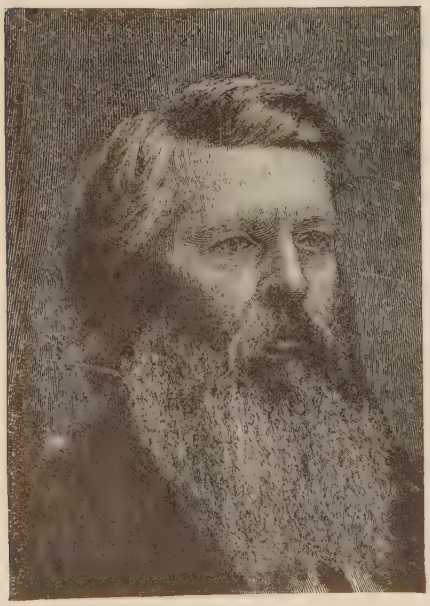
Goss, Warren Lee, author; born in Brewster, Mass., Aug. 19, 1838; received an academic education and studied law; served in the Civil War; was captured and imprisoned in Libby, Belle Isle, Andersonville, Charleston, and Florence, S. C.; released in November, 1865. His publications include *The Soldier's Story of Captivity at Andersonville; The Recollections of a Private; In the Navy,* etc.

Gottheil, Gustave, rabbi; born in Pinne, Germany, May 28, 1827; educated at the University of Berlin; was assistant rabbi at Berlin in 1855–60; rabbi at Manchester, England, in 1860–72; rabbi of the Temple Emanuel in New York City after 1873. He died in New York, April 15, 1903. His son, Richard Gottheil, is the Professor of Rabbinical Literature and Semitic Languages in Columbia University, and the author of the article on *Jews and Judaism* in vol. v., p. 146.

Gouge, William M., author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Nov. 10, 1796; was connected with the United States Treasury

Department for thirty years. His publications include *History of the American Banking System; Fiscal History of Texas*, etc. He died in Trenton, N. J., July 14, 1863.

Gough, JOHN BARTHOLOMEW, temperance lecturer; born in Sandgate, Kent, England, Aug. 22, 1817; was educated principally by his mother, and when twelve years old came to the United States. In 1831 he was employed in a publishing house in New York City, and there learned the bookbinding trade. In 1833 he lost his place and soon drifted into the worst habits of dissipation. For several years he spent his time in drinking resorts, making his meagre living by singing and by his wonderful powers of comic delineation. In 1842 he went to work in Worcester, Mass., where he was soon looked upon as a hopeless drunkard. In October of that year a little kindness extended to him by a Quaker led him to a temperance meeting, where he signed a pledge which he faithfully kept for several months, when some old companions



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led him astray. He soon, however, conquered his appetite, and a desire to give his life to the cause of temperance became irresistible. He left Worcester, and with a carpet-bag in hand travelled on foot through the New England States, lecturing wherever he could gain auditors. His intense earnestness and powers of expression and imitation enabled him to sway audiences in a manner attained by few speakers. For more than seventeen years he lectured on temperance, speaking to more than 5,000 audiences. In 1854 he went to England, intending to remain but a short time. His success, however, was so great that he stayed for two years. In 1857 he again went to England and lectured for three years. In 1859 he began to speak before lyceums on literary and social topics, though his chief subject was always temperance. He published a number of works, including *Autobiography; Orations; Temperance Addresses; Temperance Lectures;* and *Sunlight and Shadow, or Gleanings from My Lifework.* He died in Frankford, Pa., Feb. 18, 1886.

Gould, BENJAMIN APTHORP, astronomer; born in Boston, Mass., Sept. 27, 1824; graduated at Harvard in 1844, and went abroad for further study in 1845. Returning to the United States in 1848 he settled in Cambridge, Mass., and early in 1849 started the *Astronomical Journal*, in which were published the results of many original investigations. In 1851 he took charge of the longitude operations of the United States Coast Survey. After the Atlantic cable was laid in 1866, he went to Valencia, Ireland, and founded a station where he could determine the difference in longitude between America and Europe. He also, by exact observations, connected the two continents. These were the first determinations, by telegraph, of transatlantic longitude, and they resulted in founding a regular series of longitudinal measurements from Louisiana to the Ural Mountains. In 1856–59 Dr. Gould was director of the Dudley Observatory in Albany, N. Y. In this building the normal clock was first employed to give time throughout the observatory by telegraph. He later greatly improved this clock, which is now used in all parts of the world. In 1868 he organized and directed the national observatory at Cordoba, in the Argentine Republic. He there mapped out a large part of the

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southern heavens. He also organized a national meteorological office, which was connected with branch stations extending from the tropics to Terra del Fuego, and from the Andes Mountains to the Atlantic. He returned from South America in 1885, and died in Cambridge, Mass., Nov. 26, 1896. His publications include *Investigations in the Military and Anthropological Statistics of American Soldiers; Investigations of the Orbit of Comet V.; Report of the Discovery of the Planet Neptune; Discussions of Observations Made by the United States Astronomical Expedition to Chile to Determine the Solar Parallax; The Transatlantic Longitude as Determined by the Coast Survey; Uranometry of the Southern Heavens; Ancestry of Zaccheus Gould*, etc.

Gould, HELEN MILLER, philanthropist; born in New York City, June 20, 1868; daughter of Jay Gould; has been actively associated with benevolent work. When the war with Spain began in 1898 she gave the United States government $100,000 to be used at the discretion of the authorities. She was also actively identified with the Woman's National War Relief Association and freely contributed to its work. When the sick, wounded, and convalescent soldiers from Cuba were taken to Camp Wikoff on Long Island, she gave her personal services and also $25,000 for needed supplies. Among her other benefactions are $250,000 to the University of New York for a new library (secretly given in 1895), and later $60,000 for additional cost; $60,000 to Rutgers College, New Brunswick, N. J.; $10,000 for the engineering school of the University of New York; $8,000 to Vassar College; $100,000 to the University of New York for a Hall of Fame; $250,000 for the erection of a Presbyterian church at Roxbury, N. Y., and $50,000 for a building for the Naval Branch of the Young Men's Christian Association in Brooklyn, N. Y.

Gould, JAY, capitalist; born in Roxbury, N. Y., May 27, 1836; studied in Hobart Academy and afterwards was employed as book-keeper in a blacksmith shop. Later he learned surveying and was given employment in making surveys for a map of Ulster county. After completing the survey of several other counties, he became interested in the lumbering business with Zadock Pratt, whose share he later purchased. Just before the panic of 1857 he sold his lumber business and went to Stroudsburg, Pa., where he entered a bank. It was at this time that he first became interested in railroad enterprises. Removing to New York City he became a broker, dealing at first in Erie Railroad bonds. In 1868 he was elected president of that company and remained in that office till 1872, when the company was reorganized, and he was forced as a result of long litigation to restore $7,550,000, a portion of the amount which it was alleged he had wrongfully acquired. While president of the Erie com-

pany he invested heavily in stocks of various railroads and telegraph companies. After losing his office in the Erie company he applied himself to the Pacific railroads, in which he had become interested, the elevated railroads of New York, and the Western Union Telegraph Company. He built many branch roads, took a number of roads from receivers, and brought about combinations which effected what was known as the "Gould System." He was actively connected with the BLACK FRIDAY (*q. v.*) and other financial sensations. His financial standing having been assailed in 1882, he exhibited to a committee of financiers stocks and bonds to the face value of $53,000,000, and stated

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that he could produce $20,000,000 more if desired. He died in New York City, Dec. 2, 1892.

Gourges, DOMINIC DE. See FLORIDA.

Government, INSTRUMENT OF. A constitution adopted by Cromwell and his council of officers when the Little Parliament dissolved itself in December, 1653, surrendering authority to Cromwell as Lord Protector. It is therefore to be regarded as the constitutional basis of definition of the Protectorate; and under it the reformed Parliament met in September, 1654. This assembly proceeded to settle the government on a Parliamentary basis, taking the "Instrument" as the groundwork of the new constitution, and carrying it clause by clause. The Instrument of Government holds therefore not only an important place in English political history, but in the general history of the development of the idea of a written constitution.

The following is its text:

The government of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging.

I. That the supreme legislative authority of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging, shall be and reside in one person, and the people assembled in Parliament; the style of which person shall be the Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

II. That the exercise of the chief magistracy and the administration of the government over the said countries and dominions, and the people thereof, shall be in the Lord Protector, assisted with a council, the number whereof shall not exceed twenty-one, nor be less than thirteen.

III. That all writs, processes, commissions, patents, grants, and other things, which now run in the name and style of the keepers of the liberty of England, by authority of Parliament, shall run in the name and style of the Lord Protector, from whom, for the future, shall be derived all magistracy and honours in these three nations; and have the power of pardons (except in case of murders and treason) and benefit of all forfeitures for the public use; and shall govern the said countries and dominions in all things by the advice of the council, and according to these presents and the laws.

IV. That the Lord Protector, the Parliament sitting, shall dispose and order the militia and forces, both by sea and land, for the peace and good of the three nations, by consent of Parliament; and that the Lord Protector, with the advice and consent of the major part of the council, shall dispose and order the militia for the ends aforesaid in the intervals of Parliament.

V. That the Lord Protector, by the advice aforesaid, shall direct in all things concerning the keeping and holding of a good correspondency with foreign kings, princes, and states; and also, with the

consent of the major part of the council, have the power of war and peace.

VI. That the laws shall not be altered, suspended, abrogated, or repealed, nor any new law made, nor any tax, charge, or imposition laid upon the people, but by common consent in Parliament, save only as is expressed in the thirtieth article.

VII. That there shall be a Parliament summoned to meet at Westminster upon the third day of September, 1654, and that successively a Parliament shall be summoned once in every third year, to be accounted from the dissolution of the present Parliament.

VIII. That neither the Parliament to be next summoned, nor any successive Parliaments, shall, during the time of five months, to be accounted from the day of their last meeting, be adjourned, prorogued, or dissolved, without their own consent.

IX. That as well the next as all other successive Parliaments, shall be summoned and elected in manner hereafter expressed; that is to say, the persons to be chosen within England, Wales, and Isles of Jersey, Guernsey, and the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed, to sit and serve in Parliament, shall be, and not exceed, the number of four hundred. The persons to be chosen within Scotland, to sit and serve in Parliament, shall be, and not exceed, the number of thirty; and the persons to be chosen to sit in Parliament for Ireland shall be, and not exceed, the number of thirty.

X. That the persons to be elected to sit in Parliament from time to time, for the several counties of England, Wales, the Isles of Jersey and Guernsey, and the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed, and all places within the same respectively, shall be according to the proportions and numbers hereafter expressed: that is to say,

Bedfordshire, 5; Bedford Town, 1; Berkshire, 5; Abingdon, 1; Reading, 1; Buckinghamshire, 5; Buckingham Town, 1; Aylesbury, 1; Wycomb, 1; Cambridgeshire, 4; Cambridge Town, 1; Cambridge University, 1; Isle of Ely, 2; Cheshire, 4; Chester, 1; Cornwall, 8; Launceston, 1; Truro, 1; Penryn, 1; East Looe and West Looe, 1; Cumberland, 2; Carlisle, 1; Derbyshire, 4; Derby Town, 1; Devonshire, 11; Exeter, 2; Plymouth, 2; Clifton, Dartmouth, Hardness, 1; Totnes, 1; Barnstable, 1; Tiverton, 1; Honiton, 1; Dorsetshire, 6; Dorchester, 1; Weymouth and Melcomb-Regis, 1; Lyme-Regis, 1; Poole, 1; Durham, 2; City of Durham, 1; Essex, 13; Malden, 1; Colchester, 2; Gloucestershire, 5; Gloucester, 2; Tewkesbury, 1; Cirencester, 1; Herefordshire, 4; Hereford, 1; Leominster, 1; Hertfordshire, 5; St. Alban's, 1; Hertford, 1; Huntingdonshire, 3; Huntingdon, 1; Kent, 11; Canterbury, 2; Rochester, 1; Maidstone, 1; Dover, 1; Sandwich, 1; Queenborough, 1; Lancashire, 4; Preston, 1; Lancaster, 1; Liverpool, 1; Manchester, 1; Leicestershire, 4; Leicester, 2; Lincolnshire, 10; Lincoln, 2; Boston, 1; Grantham, 1; Stamford, 1; Great Grimsby, 1; Middlesex, 4; London, 6; Westminster, 2; Monmouthshire, 3; Norfolk, 10; Norwich, 2; Lynn-Regis, 2; Great Yarmouth, 2; Northamptonshire, 6; Peterborough, 1; Northampton, 1; Nottinghamshire, 4; Nottingham, 2; Northumberland, 3; Newcastle-upon-Tyne, 1; Berwick, 1; Oxfordshire, 5; Oxford City, 1; Oxford University, 1; Woodstock, 1; Rutlandshire, 2; Shropshire, 4; Shrewsbury, 2; Bridgnorth, 1; Ludlow, 1; Staffordshire, 3; Lichfield, 1; Stafford, 1; Newcastle-under-Lyne, 1; Somersetshire, 11; Bristol, 2; Taunton, 2; Bath, 1; Wells, 1; Bridgewater, 1; Southamptonshire, 8; Winchester, 1; Southampton, 1; Portsmouth, 1; Isle of Wight, 2; Andover, 1; Suffolk, 10; Ipswich, 2; Bury St. Edmunds, 2; Dunwich, 1; Sudbury, 1; Surrey, 6; Southwark, 2; Guildford, 1; Reigate, 1; Sussex, 9; Chichester, 1; Lewes, 1; East Grinstead, 1; Arundel, 1; Rye, 1; Westmoreland, 2; Warwickshire, 4; Coventry, 2; Warwick, 1; Wiltshire, 10; New Sarum, 2; Marlborough, 1; Devizes, 1; Worcestershire, 5; Worcester, 2.

Yorkshire.—West Riding, 6; East Riding, 4; North Riding, 4; City of York, 2; Kingston-upon-Hull, 1; Beverley, 1; Scarborough, 1; Richmond, 1; Leeds, 1; Halifax, 1.

Wales.—Anglesey, 2; Brecknockshire, 2; Cardiganshire, 2; Carmarthenshire, 2; Carnarvonshire, 2; Denbighshire, 2; Flintshire, 2; Glamorganshire, 2; Cardiff, 1; Merionethshire, 1; Montgomeryshire, 2; Pembrokeshire, 2; Haverfordwest, 1; Radnorshire, 2.

The distribution of the persons to be chosen for Scotland and Ireland, and the several counties, cities, and places therein, shall be according to such proportions and number as shall be agreed upon and declared by the Lord Protector and the major part of the council, before the sending forth writs of summons for the next Parliament.

XI. That the summons to Parliament shall be by writ under the Great Seal of England, directed to the sheriffs of the several and respective counties, with such alteration as may suit with the present

government, to be made by the Lord Protector and his council, which the Chancellor, Keeper, or Commissioners of the Great Seal shall seal, issue, and send abroad by warrant from the Lord Protector. If the Lord Protector shall not give warrant for issuing of writs of summons for the next Parliament, before the first of June, 1654, or for the Triennial Parliaments, before the first day of August in every third year, to be accounted as aforesaid; that then the Chancellor, Keeper, or Commissioners of the Great Seal for the time being, shall, without any warrant or direction, within seven days after the said first day of June, 1654, seal, issue, and send abroad writs of summons (changing therein what is to be changed as aforesaid) to the several and respective sheriffs of England, Scotland, and Ireland, for summoning the Parliament to meet at Westminster, the third day of September next: and shall likewise, within seven days after the said first day of August, in every third year, to be accounted from the dissolution of the precedent Parliament, seal, issue, and send forth abroad several writs of summons (changing therein what is to be changed) as aforesaid, for summoning the Parliament to meet at Westminster the sixth of November in that third year. That the said several and respective sheriffs, shall, within ten days after the receipt of such writ as aforesaid, cause the same to be proclaimed and published in every market-town within his county upon the market-days thereof, between twelve and three of the clock; and shall then also publish and declare the certain day of the week and month, for choosing members to serve in Parliament for the body of the said county, according to the tenor of the said writ, which shall be upon Wednesday five weeks after the date of the writ; and shall likewise declare the place where the election shall be made: for which purpose he shall appoint the most convenient place for the whole county to meet in; and shall send precepts for elections to be made in all and every city, town, borough, or place within his county, where elections are to be made by virtue of these presents, to the Mayor, Sheriff, or other head officer of such city, town, borough, or place, within three days after the receipt of such writ and writs; which the said Mayors, Sheriffs, and officers respectively are to make publication of, and of the certain day for such elections to be made in the said city, town, or place aforesaid, and to cause elections to be made accordingly.

XII. That at the day and place of elections, the Sheriff of each county, and the said Mayors, Sheriffs, Bailiffs, and other head officers within their cities, towns, boroughs, and places respectively, shall take view of the said elections, and shall make return into the chancery within twenty days after the said elections, of the persons elected by the greater number of electors, under their hands and seals, between him on the one part, and the electors on the other part; wherein shall be contained, that the persons elected shall not have power to alter the government as it is hereby settled in one single person and a Parliament.

XIII. That the Sheriff, who shall wittingly and willingly make any false return, or neglect his duty, shall incur the penalty of 2000 marks of lawful English money; the one moiety to the Lord Protector, and the other moiety to such person as will sue for the same.

XIV. That all and every person and persons, who have aided, advised, assisted, or abetted in any war against the Parliament, since the first day of January 1641 (unless they have been since in the service of Parliament, and given signal testimony of their good affection thereunto) shall be disabled and incapable to be elected, or to give any vote in the election of any members to serve in the next Parliament, or in the three succeeding Triennial Parliaments.

XV. That all such, who have advised, assisted, or abetted the rebellion of Ireland, shall be disabled and incapable for ever to be elected, or give any vote in the election of any member to serve in Parliament; as also all such who do or shall profess the Roman Catholic religion.

XVI. That all votes and elections given or made contrary, or not according to these qualifications, shall be null and void; and if any person, who is hereby made incapable, shall give his vote for election of members to serve in Parlia-

ment, such person shall lose and forfeit one full year's value in his real estate, and one full third part of his personal estate; one moiety thereof to the Lord Protector, and the other moiety to him or them who shall sue for the same.

XVII. That the persons who shall be elected to serve in Parliament, shall be such (and no other than such) as are persons of known integrity, fearing God, and of good conversation, and being of the age of twenty-one years.

XVIII. That all and every person and persons seized or possessed to his own use, of any estate, real or personal, to the value of £200, and not within the aforesaid exceptions, shall be capable to elect members to serve in Parliament for counties.

XIX. That the Chancellor, Keeper, or Commissioners of the Great Seal, shall be sworn before they enter into their offices, truly and faithfully to issue forth, and send abroad, writs of summons to Parliament, at the times and in the manner before expressed; and in case of neglect or failure to issue and send abroad writs accordingly, he or they shall for every such offence be guilty of high treason, and suffer the pains and penalties thereof.

XX. That in case writs be not issued out, as is before expressed, but that there be a neglect therein, fifteen days after the time wherein the same ought to be issued out by the Chancellor, Keeper, or Commissioners of the Great Seal; that then the Parliament shall, as often as such failure shall happen, assemble and be held at Westminster, in the usual place, at the time prefixed, in manner and by the means hereafter expressed; that is to say, that the sheriffs of the several and respective counties, sheriffdoms, cities, boroughs, and places aforesaid, within England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, the Chancellors, Masters, and Scholars of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and the Mayor and Bailiffs of the borough of Berwick-upon-Tweed, and other places aforesaid respectively, shall at the several courts and places to be appointed as aforesaid, within thirty days after the said fifteen days, cause such members to be chosen for their said several and respective counties, sheriffdoms, universities, cities, boroughs, and places aforesaid, by such persons, and in such manner, as if several and respective writs of summons to Parliament under the Great Seal had issued and been awarded according to the tenor aforesaid: that if the sheriff, or other persons authorized, shall neglect his or their duty herein, that all and every such sheriff and person authorized as aforesaid, so neglecting his or their duty, shall, for every such offence, be guilty of high treason, and shall suffer the pains and penalties thereof.

XXI. That the clerk, called the clerk of the Commonwealth in Chancery for the time being, and all others, who shall afterwards execute that office, to whom the returns shall be made, shall for the next Parliament, and the two succeeding Triennial Parliaments, the next day after such return, certify the names of the several persons so returned, and of the places for which he and they were chosen respectively, unto the Council; who shall peruse the said returns and examine whether the persons so elected and returned be such as is agreeable to the qualifications, and not disabled to be elected: and that every person and persons being so duly elected, and being approved of by the major part of the Council to be persons not disabled, but qualified as aforesaid, shall be esteemed a member of Parliament, and be admitted to sit in Parliament and not otherwise.

XXII. That the persons so chosen and assembled in manner aforesaid, or any sixty of them, shall be, and be deemed the Parliament of England, Scotland, and Ireland; and the supreme legislative power to be and reside in the Lord Protector and such Parliament, in manner herein expressed.

XXIII. That the Lord Protector, with the advice of the major part of the Council, shall at any other time than is before expressed, when the necessities of the State shall require it, summon Parliaments in manner before expressed, which shall not be adjourned, prorogued, or dissolved without their own consent, during the first three months of their sitting. And in case of future war with any foreign State, a Parliament shall be forthwith summoned for their advice concerning the same.

XXIV. That all Bills agreed unto by

the Parliament, shall be presented to the Lord Protector for his consent; and in case he shall not give his consent thereto within twenty days after they shall be presented to him, or give satisfaction to the Parliament within the time limited, that then, upon declaration of the Parliament that the Lord Protector hath not consented nor given satisfaction, such Bills shall pass into and become laws, although he shall not give his consent thereunto; provided such bills contain nothing in them contrary to the matters contained in these presents.

XXV. That Henry Lawrence, Esq., &c., or any seven of them, shall be a Council for the purposes expressed in this writing; and upon the death or other removal of any of them, the Parliament shall nominate six persons of ability, integrity, and fearing God, for every one that is dead or removed; out of which the major part of the Council shall elect two, and present them to the Lord Protector, of which he shall elect one; and in case the Parliament shall not nominate within twenty days after notice given unto them thereof, the major part of the Council shall nominate three as aforesaid to the Lord Protector, who out of them shall supply the vacancy; and until this choice be made, the remaining part of the Council shall execute as fully in all things, as if their number were full. And in case of corruption, or other miscarriage in any of the Council in their trust, the Parliament shall appoint seven of their number, and the Council six, who, together with the Lord Chancellor, Lord Keeper, or Commissioners of the Great Seal for the time being, shall have power to hear and determine such corruption and miscarriage, and to award and inflict punishment, as the nature of the offence shall deserve, which punishment shall not be pardoned or remitted by the Lord Protector; and, in the interval of Parliaments, the major part of the Council, with the consent of the Lord Protector, may, for corruption or other miscarriage as aforesaid, suspend any of their number from the exercise of their trust, if they shall find it just, until the matter shall be heard and examined as aforesaid.

XXVI. That the Lord Protector and the major part of the Council aforesaid may, at any time before the meeting of the next Parliament, add to the Council such persons as they shall think fit, provided the number of the Council be not made thereby to exceed twenty-one, and the quorum to be proportioned accordingly by the Lord Protector and the major part of the Council.

XXVII. That a constant yearly revenue shall be raised, settled, and established for maintaining of 10,000 horse and dragoons, and 20,000 foot, in England, Scotland and Ireland, for the defence and security thereof, and also for a convenient number of ships for guarding of the seas; besides £200,000 per annum for defraying the other necessary charges of administration of justice, and other expenses of the Government, which revenue shall be raised by the customs, and such other ways and means as shall be agreed upon by the Lord Protector and the Council, and shall not be taken away or diminished, nor the way agreed upon for raising the same altered, but by the consent of the Lord Protector and the Parliament.

XXVIII. That the said yearly revenue shall be paid into the public treasury, and shall be issued out for the uses aforesaid.

XXIX. That in case there shall not be cause hereafter to keep up so great a defence both at land or sea, but that there be an abatement made thereof, the money which will be saved thereby shall remain in bank for the public service, and not be employed to any other use but by consent of Parliament, or, in the intervals of Parliament, by the Lord Protector and major part of the Council

XXX. That the raising of money for defraying the charge of the present extraordinary forces, both at sea and land, in respect of the present wars, shall be by consent of Parliament, and not otherwise: save only that the Lord Protector, with the consent of the major part of the Council, for preventing the disorders and dangers which might otherwise fall out both by sea and land, shall have power, until the meeting of the first Parliament, to raise money for the purposes aforesaid; and also to make laws and ordinances for the peace and welfare of these nations where it shall be necessary, which shall be binding and in force, until order shall

be taken in Parliament concerning the same.

XXXI. That the lands, tenements, rents, royalties, jurisdictions and hereditaments which remain yet unsold or undisposed of, by Act or Ordinance of Parliament, belonging to the Commonwealth (except the forests and chases, and the honours and manors belonging to the same; the lands of the rebels in Ireland, lying in the four counties of Dublin, Cork, Kildare, and Carlow; the lands forfeited by the people of Scotland in the late wars, and also the lands of Papists and delinquents in England who have not yet compounded), shall be vested in the Lord Protector, to hold, to him and his successors, Lords Protectors of these nations, and shall not be alienated but by consent in Parliament. And all debts, fines, issues, amercements, penalties and profits, certain and casual, due to the Keepers of the liberties of England by authority of Parliament, shall be due to the Lord Protector, and be payable into his public receipt, and shall be recovered and prosecuted in his name.

XXXII. That the office of Lord Protector over these nations shall be elective and not hereditary; and upon the death of the Lord Protector, another fit person shall be forthwith elected to succeed him in the Government; which election shall be by the Council, who, immediately upon the death of the Lord Protector, shall assemble in the Chamber where they usually sit in Council; and, having given notice to all their members of the cause of their assembling, shall, being thirteen at least present, proceed to the election; and, before they depart the said Chamber, shall elect a fit person to succeed in the Government, and forthwith cause proclamation thereof to be made in all the three nations as shall be requisite; and the person that they, or the major part of them, shall elect as aforesaid, shall be, and shall be taken to be, Lord Protector over these nations of England, Scotland and Ireland, and the dominions thereto belonging. Provided that none of the children of the late King, nor any of his line or family, be elected to be Lord Protector or other Chief Magistrate over these nations, or any the dominions thereto belonging. And until the aforesaid election be past, the Council shall take care of the Government, and administer in all things as fully as the Lord Protector, or the Lord Protector and Council are enabled to do.

XXXIII. That Oliver Cromwell, Captain-General of the forces of England, Scotland and Ireland, shall be, and is hereby declared to be, Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland and Ireland, and the dominions thereto belonging, for his life.

XXXIV. That the Chancellor, Keeper or Commissioners of the Great Seal, the Treasurer, Admiral, Chief Governors of Ireland and Scotland, and the Chief Justices of both the Benches, shall be chosen by the approbation of Parliament; and, in the intervals of Parliament, by the approbation of the major part of the Council, to be afterwards approved by the Parliament.

XXXV. That the Christian religion, as contained in the Scriptures, be held forth and recommended as the public profession of these nations; and that, as soon as may be, a provision, less subject to scruple and contention, and more certain than the present, be made for the encouragement and maintenance of able and painful teachers, for the instructing the people, and for discovery and confutation of error, hereby, and whatever is contrary to sound doctrine; and until such provision be made, the present maintenance shall not be taken away or impeached.

XXXVI. That to the public profession held forth none shall be compelled by penalties or otherwise; but that endeavours be used to win them by sound doctrine and the example of a good conversation.

XXXVII. That such as profess faith in God by Jesus Christ (though differing in judgment from the doctrine, worship or discipline publicly held forth) shall not be restrained from, but shall be protected in, the profession of the faith and exercise of their religion; so as they abuse not this liberty to the civil injury of others and to the actual disturbance of the public peace on their parts; provided this liberty be not extended to Popery or Prelacy, nor to such as, under the profession of Christ, hold forth and practice licentiousness.

XXXVIII. That all laws, statutes and ordinances, and clauses in any law, statute or ordinance to the contrary of the aforesaid liberty, shall be esteemed as null and void.

XXXIX. That the Acts and Ordinances of Parliament made for the sale or other disposition of the lands, rents and hereditaments of the late King, Queen, and Prince, of Archbishops and Bishops, &c., Deans and Chapters, the lands of delinquents and forest-lands, or any of them, or of any other lands, tenements, rents and hereditaments belonging to the Commonwealth, shall nowise be impeached or made invalid, but shall remain good and firm; and that the securities given by Act and Ordinance of Parliament for any sum or sums of money, by any of the said lands, the exercise, or any other public revenue; and also the securities given by the public faith of the nation, and the engagement of the public faith for satisfaction of debts and damages, shall remain firm and good, and not be made void and invalid upon any pretence whatsoever.

XL. That the Articles given to or made with the enemy, and afterwards confirmed by Parliament, shall be performed and made good to the persons concerned therein; and that such appeals as were depending in the last Parliament for relief concerning bills of sale of delinquent's estates, may be heard and determined the next Parliament, any thing in this writing or otherwise to the contrary notwithstanding.

XLI. That every successive Lord Protector over these nations shall take and subscribe a solemn oath, in the presence of the Council, and such others as they shall call to them, that he will seek the peace, quiet and welfare of these nations, cause law and justice to be equally administered; and that he will not violate or infringe the matters and things contained in this writing, and in all other things will, to his power and to the best of his understanding, govern these nations according to the laws, statutes and customs thereof.

XLII. That each person of the Council shall, before they enter upon their trust, take and subscribe an oath, that they will be true and faithful in their trust, according to the best of their knowledge; and that in the election of every successive Lord Protector they shall proceed therein impartially, and do nothing therein for any promise, fear, favour or reward.

Government of the United States. See CALHOUN, JOHN CALDWELL.

Grady, HENRY WOODFEN, journalist; born in Athens, Ga., in 1851; was educated in the universities of Georgia and Virginia, and entered journalism soon after the close of the Civil War. From the beginning he made a specialty of seeking the requirements of the South for its rehabilitation in prosperity. His early publications, relating to the resources and possibilities of the State of Georgia, were published in the Atlanta *Constitution.* The clearness and practical vein of these letters attracted the attention of the editor of the New York *Herald,* who appointed Mr. Grady a correspondent for that paper. In 1872 he became interested in the Atlanta *Herald,* and in 1880 he bought a

HENRY WOODFEN GRADY.

quarter interest in the Atlanta *Constitution* for $20,000, which sum was loaned him by Cyrus W. Field, and was repaid with interest within two years. During these years Mr. Grady was known chiefly

as a painstaking journalist, warmly devoted to the promotion of the interests of the Southern States. In 1886 he accepted an invitation from the New England Society of New York to deliver the formal speech at its annual dinner (Dec. 22). He chose for his subject "The New South," and the speech in its composition and delivery gave him a sudden and wide fame as an orator. On Dec. 12, 1889, he delivered by invitation an address before the Merchants' Association in Boston on "The Future of the Negro," and this speech still farther increased his fame. He was ill at the time of its delivery, became worse before leaving Boston, and died in Athens, Ga., on the 23d of that month. The citizens of Atlanta, grateful for what he had done for the city, State, and the South, testified their appreciation of his worth by erecting in that city the Grady Memorial Hospital, which was formally opened June 2, 1892.

The New South.—"There was a South of slavery and secession—that South is dead. There is a South of union and freedom—that South, thank God, is living, breathing, growing every hour." These words, delivered from the immortal lips of Benjamin H. Hill, at Tammany Hall, in 1866, true then, and truer now, I shall make my text to-night.

Mr. President and Gentlemen,—Let me express to you my appreciation of the kindness by which I am permitted to address you. I make this abrupt acknowledgment advisedly, for I feel that if, when I raised my provincial voice in this ancient and august presence, I could find courage for no more than the opening sentence, it would be well if, in that sentence, I had met in a rough sense my obligation as a guest, and had perished, so to speak, with courtesy on the lips and grace in my heart.

Permitted, through your kindness, to catch my second wind, let me say that I appreciate the significance of being the first Southerner to speak at this board, which bears the substance, if it surpasses the semblance, of original New England hospitality, and honors a sentiment that in turn honors you, but in which my personality is lost and the compliment to my people made plain.

I bespeak the utmost stretch of your courtesy to-night. I am not troubled about those from whom I come. You remember the man whose wife sent him to a neighbor with a pitcher of milk, and who, tripping on the top step, fell, with such casual interruptions as the landings afforded, into the basement; and, while picking himself up, had the pleasure of hearing his wife call out:

"John, did you break the pitcher?"

"No, I didn't," said John, "but I be dinged if I don't."

So, while those who call to me from behind may inspire me with energy, if not with courage, I ask an indulgent hearing from you. I beg that you will bring your full faith in American fairness and frankness to judgment upon what I shall say. There was an old preacher once who told some boys of the Bible lesson he was going to read in the morning. The boys, finding the place, glued together the connection pages. The next morning he read on the bottom of one page: "When Noah was 120 years old he took unto himself a wife, who was"—then turning the page—"140 cubits long, 40 cubits wide, built of gopher wood, and covered with pitch inside and out." He was naturally puzzled at this. He read it again, verified it, and then he said: "My friends, this is the first time I ever met this in the Bible, but I accept it as an evidence of the assertion that we are fearfully and wonderfully made." If I could get you to hold such faith to-night, I could proceed cheerfully to the task I otherwise approach with a sense of consecration.

Pardon me one word, Mr. President, spoken for the sole purpose of getting into the volumes that go out annually freighted with the rich eloquence of your speakers the fact that the Cavalier, as well as the Puritan, was on the continent in its early days, and that he was "up and able to be about." I have read your books carefully, and I find no mention of that fact, which seems to me an important one for preserving a sort of historical equilibrium, if for nothing else.

Let me remind you that the Virginia Cavalier first challenged France on this continent; that Cavalier John Smith gave New England its very name, and was so pleased with the job that he has

been handing his own name around ever since; and that, while Miles Standish was cutting off men's ears for courting a girl without her parents' consent, and forbade men to kiss their wives on Sunday, the Cavalier was courting everything in sight; and that the Almighty had vouchsafed great increase to the Cavalier colonies, the huts in the wilderness being as full as the nests in the woods.

But having incorporated the Cavalier as a fact in your charming little book, I shall let him work out his own salvation, as he has always done with engaging gallantry, and we will hold no controversy as to his merits. Why should we? Neither Puritan nor Cavalier long survived as such. The virtues and traditions of both happily still live for the inspiration of their sons and the saving of the old fashion. Both Puritan and Cavalier were lost in the storm of the first Revolution, and the American citizen, supplanting both, and stronger than either, took possession of the republic bought by their common blood and fashioned to wisdom, and charged himself with teaching men government and establishing the voice of the people as the voice of God.

My friend, Dr. Talmage, has told you that the typical American has yet to come. Let me tell you that he has already come. Great types, like valuable plants, are slow to flower and fruit. But from the union of these colonist Puritans and Cavaliers, from the straightening of their purposes and the crossing of their blood, slow perfecting through a century, came he who stands as the first typical American, the first who comprehended within himself all the strength and gentleness, all the majesty and grace of this republic—Abraham Lincoln. He was the sum of Puritan and Cavalier; for in his ardent nature were fused the virtues of both, and in the depths of his great soul the faults of both were lost. He was greater than Puritan, greater than Cavalier, in that he was American, and that in his homely form were first gathered the vast and thrilling forces of his ideal government, charging it with such tremendous meaning, and so elevating it above human suffering that martyrdom, though infamously aimed, came as a fitting crown to a life consecrated from the cradle to human liberty. Let us, each cherishing the traditions and honoring his fathers, build with reverent hands to the type of his simple but sublime life, in which all types are honored; and in our common glory as Americans there will be plenty and some to spare for your forefathers and for mine.

In speaking to the toast with which you have honored me, I accept the term, "The New South." as in no sense disparaging to the old. Dear to me, sir, is the home of my childhood and the traditions of my people. I would not, if I could, dim the glory they won in peace and war, or by word or deed take aught from the splendor and grace of their civilization, never equalled, and, perhaps, never to be equalled in its chivalric strength and grace. There is a New South, not through protest against the old, but because of new conditions, new adjustments, and, if you please, new ideas and aspirations. It is to this that I address myself, and to the consideration of which I hasten, lest it become the Old South before I get to it. Age does not endow all things with strength and virtue, nor are all new things to be despised. The shoemaker who put over his door, "John Smith's Shop, Founded in 1760," was more than matched by his young rival across the street, who hung out his sign, "Bill Jones, Established 1886. No Old Stock Kept in This Shop."

Dr. Talmage has drawn for you, with a master hand, the picture of your returning armies. He has told you how, in the pomp and circumstance of war, they came back to you, marching with proud and victorious tread, reading their glory in a nation's eye. Will you bear with me while I tell you of another army that sought its home at the close of the late war? An army that marched home in defeat and not in victory; in pathos and not in splendor, but in glory that equalled yours, and to hearts as loving as ever welcomed heroes. Let me picture to you the footsore Confederate soldier as, buttoning up in his faded gray jacket the parole which was to bear testimony to his children of his fidelity and faith, he turned his face southward from Appomattox in April, 1865. Think of him as ragged,

half starved, heavy hearted, enfeebled by want and wounds; having fought to exhaustion he surrenders his gun, wrings the hands of his comrades in silence, and, lifting his tear-stained and pallid face for the last time to the graves that dot the old Virginia hills, pulls his gray cap over his brow and begins the slow and painful journey. What does he find? Let me ask you who went to your homes eager to find, in the welcome you had justly earned, full payment for four years' sacrifice, what does he find when, having followed the battle-stained cross against overwhelming odds, dreading death not half so much as surrender, he reaches the home he left so prosperous and beautiful? He finds the house in ruins, his farm devastated, his slaves free, his stock killed, his barn empty, his trade destroyed, his money worthless, his social system, feudal in its magnificence, swept away; his people without law or legal status; his comrades slain, and the burdens of others heavy on his shoulders. Crushed by defeat, his very traditions gone, without money, credit, employment, material training, and besides all this, confronted with the gravest problem that ever met human intelligence—the establishing of a status for the vast body of liberated slaves.

What does he do—this hero in gray with a heart of gold? Does he sit down in sullenness and despair? Not for a day. Surely God, who has stripped him of his prosperity, inspired him in his adversity. As ruin was never before so overwhelming, never was restoration swifter. This soldier stepped from the trenches into the furrow; horses that had charged Federal guns marched before the plough, and field that ran red with human blood in April were green with the harvest of June; women reared in luxury cut up their dresses and made breeches for their husbands, and, with a patience and heroism that fit women always as a garment, gave their hands to work. There was little bitterness in all this. Cheerfulness and frankness prevailed. "Bill Arp" struck the key-note when he said: "Well, I killed as many of them as they did of me, and now I am going to work." Or the soldier returning home from defeat and roasting some corn on the road-side, who made the remark to his comrades: "You may leave the South if you want to, but I am going to Sandersville, kiss my wife and raise a crop, and if the Yankees fool with me any more I will whip 'em again." I want to say of General Sherman—who is considered an able man in our parts, though some people think he is kind of careless about fire—that from the ashes he left us in 1864, we have raised a brave and beautiful city; that somehow or other we have caught the sunshine in the bricks and mortar of our homes, and have builded therein not one ignoble prejudice or memory.

But in all this what have we accomplished? What is the sum of our work? We have found out that in the general summary the free negro counts more than he did as a slave. We have planted the school-house on the hill-top and made it free to white and black. We have sowed towns and cities in the place of theories, and put business above politics. We have challenged your spinners in Massachusetts and your iron-makers in Pennsylvania. We have learned that the $4,000,000 annually received from our cotton crop will make us rich, when the supplies that make it are home-raised. We have reduced the commercial rate from 24 to 4 per cent., and are floating 4 per cent. bonds. We have learned that one Northern emigrant is worth fifty foreigners, and have smoothed the path to the southward, wiped out the place where Mason and Dixon's line used to be, and hung out our latch-string to you and yours.

We have reached the point that marks perfect harmony in every household, when the husband confesses that the pies which his wife cooks are as good as those his mother used to bake; and we admit that the sun shines as brightly and the moon as softly as it did "before the war." We have established thrift in the city and country. We have fallen in love with work. We have restored comfort to homes from which culture and elegance never departed. We have let economy take root and spread among us as rank as the crab-grass which sprung from Sherman's cavalry camps, until we are ready to lay odds on the Georgia Yankee, as he manufactures relics of the battle-field in a one-story shanty and squeezes pure olive oil

out of his cotton-seed, against any down-East that ever swapped wooden nutmegs for flannel sausages in the valley of Vermont.

Above all, we know that we have achieved in these "piping times of peace," a fuller independence for the South than that which our fathers sought to win in the forum by their eloquence, or compel on the field by their swords.

It is a rare privilege, sir, to have had part, however humble, in this work. Never was nobler duty confided to human hands than the uplifting and upbuilding of the prostrate and bleeding South, misguided, perhaps, but beautiful in her suffering, and honest, brave, and generous always. In the record of her social, industrial, and political illustrations we await with confidence the verdict of the world.

But what of the negro? Have we solved the problem he presents, or progressed in honor and equity towards the solution? Let the record speak to the point. No section shows a more prosperous laboring population than the negroes of the South; none in fuller sympathy with the employing and land-owning class. He shares our school fund, has the fullest protection of our laws and the friendship of our people. Self-interest, as well as honor, demand that they should have this. Our future, our very existence, depends upon our working out this problem in full and exact justice. We understand when Lincoln signed the Emancipation Proclamation, your victory was assured; for he then committed you to the cause of human liberty, against which the arms of man cannot prevail; while those of our statesmen who trusted to make slavery the corner-stone of the Confederacy doomed us to defeat as far as they could, committing us to a cause that reason could not defend or the sword maintain in the sight of advancing civilization. Had Mr. Toombs said, which he did not say, that he would call the roll of his slaves at the foot of Bunker Hill, he would have been foolish, for he might have known that whenever slavery became entangled in war it must perish, and that the chattel in human flesh ended forever in New England when your fathers, not to be blamed for parting with what did not pay, sold their slaves to our fathers, not to be praised for knowing a paying thing when they saw it.

The relations of the Southern people with the negro are close and cordial. We remember with what fidelity for four years he guarded our defenceless women and children, whose husbands and fathers were fighting against his freedom. To his credit be it said that whenever he struck a blow for his own liberty he fought in open battle, and when at last he raised his black and humble hands that the shackles might be struck off, those hands were innocent of wrong against his helpless charges, and worthy to be taken in loving grasp by every man who honors loyalty and devotion.

Ruffians have maltreated him, rascals have misled him, philanthropists established a bank for him, but the South with the North protest against injustice to this simple and sincere people. To liberty and enfranchisement is as far as the law can carry the negro. The rest must be left to conscience and common-sense. It should be left to those among whom his lot is cast, with whom he is indissolubly connected, and whose prosperity depends upon their possessing his intelligent sympathy and confidence. Faith has been kept with him in spite of calumnious assertions to the contrary by those who assume to speak for us, or by frank opponents. Faith will be kept with him in future if the South holds her reason and integrity.

But have we kept faith with you? In the fullest sense, yes. When Lee surrendered—I don't say when Johnston surrendered, because I understand he still alludes to the time when he met General Sherman last as the time when he "determined to abandon any further prosecution of the struggle"—when Lee surrendered, I say, and Johnston quit, the South became, and has been, loyal to the Union. We fought hard enough to know that we were whipped, and in perfect frankness accepted as final the arbitrament of the sword to which we had appealed. The South found her jewel in the toad's head of defeat. The shackles that had held her in narrow limitations fell forever when the shackles of the negro slave were broken.

Under the old régime the negroes were

slaves to the South, the South was a slave to the system. The old plantation, with its simple police regulation and its feudal habit, was the only type possible under slavery. Thus was gathered in the hands of a splendid and chivalric oligarchy the substance that should have been diffused among the people, as the rich blood, under certain artificial conditions, is gathered at the heart, filling that with affluent rapture, but leaving the body chill and colorless.

The Old South rested everything on slavery and agriculture, unconscious that these neither give nor maintain healthy growth. The New South presents a perfect democracy, the oligarchs leading in the popular movement—a social system compact and closely knitted, less splendid on the surface but stronger at the core; a hundred farms for every plantation, fifty homes for every palace, and a diversified industry that meets the complex needs of this complex age.

The New South is enamored of her new work. Her soul is stirred with the breath of a new life. The light of a grander day is falling fair on her face. She is thrilling with the consciousness of a growing power and prosperity. As she stands upright, full-statured and equal among the people of the earth, breathing the keen air and looking out upon the expanding horizon, she understands that her emancipation came because, in the inscrutable wisdom of God, her honest purpose was crossed and her brave armies were beaten.

This is said in no spirit of time-serving or apology. The South has nothing for which to apologize. She believes that the late struggle between the States was war and not rebellion, revolution and not conspiracy, and that her convictions were as honest as yours. I should be unjust to the dauntless spirit of the South and to my own convictions if I did not make this plain in this presence. The South has nothing to take back. In my native town of Athens is a monument that crowns its central hills—a plain, white shaft. Deep cut into its shining side is a name dear to me above the names of men, that of a brave and simple man who died in brave and simple faith. Not for all the glories of New England—from Plymouth Rock all the way—would I exchange the heritage he left me in his soldier's death. To the feet of that shaft I shall send my children's children to reverence him who ennobled their name with his heroic blood. But, sir, speaking from the shadow of that memory, which I honor as I do nothing else on earth, I say that the cause in which he suffered and for which he gave his life was adjudged by higher and fuller wisdom than his or mine, and I am glad that the omniscient God held the balance of battle in His almighty hand, and that human slavery was swept forever from American soil—the American Union saved from the wreck of war.

This message, Mr. President, comes to you from consecrated ground. Every foot of the soil about the city in which I live is sacred as a battle-ground of the republic. Every hill that invests it is hallowed by the blood of your brothers who died for your victory, and doubly hallowed to us by the blood of those who died hopeless, but undaunted, in defeat—sacred soil to all of us, rich with memories that make us purer and stronger and better, silent but stanch witnesses in its red desolation of the matchless valor of American hearts and the deathless glory of American arms—speaking an eloquent witness in its white peace and prosperity to the indissoluble union of American States and the unperishable brotherhood of the American people.

Now, what answer has New England to this message? Will she permit the prejudice of war to remain in the hearts of the conquerors, when it has died in the hearts of the conquered? Will she transmit this prejudice to the next generation, that in their hearts, which never felt the generous ardor of conflict, it may perpetuate itself? Will she withhold, save in strained courtesy, the hand which, straight from the soldier's heart, Grant offered to Lee at Appomattox? Will she make the vision of a restored and happy people, which gathered above the couch of your dying captain, filling his heart with grace, touching his lips with praise and glorifying his path to the grave—will she make this vision on which the last sigh of his expiring soul breathed a benediction, a cheat and a delusion? If she does, the South, never abject in asking for comradeship, must

accept with dignity its refusal; but if she does not—if she accepts with frankness and sincerity this message of goodwill and friendship, then will the prophecy of Webster, delivered in this very society forty years ago, amid tremendous applause, be verified in its fullest and final sense, when he said: "Standing hand to hand, and clasping hands, we should remain united as we have been for sixty years, citizens of the same country, members of the same government, united, all united now and united forever." There have been difficulties, contentions, and controversies, but I tell you that, in my judgment,

> "Those opposed eyes,
> Which like the meteors of a troubled heaven,
> All of one nature, of one substance bred,
> Did lately meet in th' intestine shock,
> Shall now in mutual well beseeming ranks
> March all one way."

Graebner, AUGUST L., theologian; born in Frankentrost, Mich., July 10, 1849; graduated at Concordia College, Fort Wayne, Ind., and at the Concordia Theological Seminary, St. Louis, where he became Professor of Theology in 1887. He is the author of *History of the Lutheran Church in America; Half a Century of Sound Lutheranism in America,* etc.

Graham, DAVID, lawyer; born in London, England, Feb. 8, 1808; came to the United States with his father; was admitted to the bar and gained renown in his profession. He was the author of *Practice of the Supreme Court of the State of New York; New Trials; Courts of Law and Equity in the State of New York,* etc. He died in Nice, France, May 27, 1852.

Graham, GEORGE, lawyer; born in Dumfries, Va., about 1772; graduated at Columbia College in 1790; began the practice of law in Dumfries, but later settled in Fairfax county, where he recruited the "Fairfax Light-horse" which he led in the War of 1812. He was acting Secretary of War in 1815–18; and was then sent on a perilous mission to Galveston Island, where General Lallemande, the chief of artillery in Napoleon's army, had founded a colony with 600 armed settlers, whom he persuaded to give up their undertaking and submit to the United States government. He is also said to have been instrumental in saving the government $250,000 by successfully concluding the "Indian factorage" affairs. He died in Washington, D. C., in August, 1830.

Graham, JAMES DUNCAN, military officer; born in Prince William county, Va., April 4, 1799; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1817; appointed a topographical engineer in 1829; made the survey of the northeast boundary of the United States; represented the United States under the treaty of Washington in determining the boundary between the United States and the British provinces, etc.; promoted colonel of engineers, June 1, 1863. He died in Boston, Mass., Dec. 28, 1865.

Graham, JOSEPH, military officer; born in Chester county, Pa., Oct. 13, 1759; removed to North Carolina at an early age. In 1778 he joined the Continental army and served through the remainder of the war with gallantry; in 1780 received three bullet wounds and six sabre-thrusts while guarding the retreat of Maj. W. R. Davie, near Charlotte; later, after his recovery, he defeated 600 Tories near Fayetteville with a force of 136 men. In 1814 he was commissioned major-general, when he led 1,000 men from North Carolina against the Creek Indians. He died in Lincoln county, N. C., Nov. 12, 1836.

Graham, WILLIAM ALEXANDER, Senator; born in Lincoln county, N. C., Sept. 5, 1804; graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1824; admitted to the bar; began practice in Hillsboro, N. C.; United States Senator in 1840–43; governor of North Carolina in 1844–48; and Secretary of the Navy in 1850–52. He was a Senator in the Confederate Congress from 1864 until the close of the war. He died in Saratoga Springs, N. Y., Aug. 11, 1875.

Grahame, JAMES, historian; born in Glasgow, Scotland, Dec. 21, 1790; graduated at Cambridge University; and admitted to the Scottish bar in 1812. His publications include *History of the Rise and Progress of the United States of North America till the British Revolution of 1688; Who is to Blame? or Cursory Review of the American Apology for American Accession to Negro Slavery,* etc. He died in London, England, July 3, 1842.

Grand Army of the Republic, The. The order of the Grand Army of the Republic was organized in the State of Illinois, early in the year 1866. To Dr. B. F. Stephenson, of Springfield, Ill., belongs the honor of suggesting the formation of this union of veteran soldiers, and of launching the organization into existence. The object of the combination was to afford assistance to disabled and unemployed soldiers. Dr. Stephenson had been a surgeon in a volunteer regiment during the war, and was firmly convinced that an organization of the returned volunteers, for mutual benefit, was imperatively needed. A ritual was drafted under his supervision, and the first post of the new order was formed at Decatur, Ill. Other posts were soon mustered throughout Illinois and contiguous States, and the first department (State) convention was held at Springfield, Ill., July 12, 1866. Gen. John M. Palmer was there elected department commander. Oct. 31, 1866, Dr. Stephenson, as provisional commander-in-chief, sent out an order to all the posts then formed, calling for the first national convention of the Grand Army of the Republic. This was held in Indianapolis, Ind., on Nov. 20 following, and representatives were present from the States of Illinois, Missouri, Kansas, Wisconsin, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Iowa, Kentucky, Indiana, and the District of Columbia. Gen. S. A. Hurlbut was elected as commander-in-chief. During the year 1867 the order spread rapidly. The various States completed their work of department organization, and posts were formed in all the large cities and in many counties. The second national encampment, meeting in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 15, 1868, found the order in a most promising condition. In 1868, the first observance of May 30 as a memorial day by the Grand Army was ordered, and on May 11, 1870, May 30 was fixed upon for the annual observance by an article adopted as part of the rules and regulations of the order. Unfortunately, during the warmly contested political campaign of 1868, the idea that the Army was intended as a political organization gained currency, with the result of injuring the order greatly. A heavy decrease of membership followed, causing almost a total disruption of the order in the West. In May, 1869, a change in the ritual was made, providing for three grades of membership, but this met with little favor, and in 1871 all sections providing for degrees or ranks among members were stricken from the rules. At the same time, a rule was adopted prohibiting the use of the organization for any partisan purpose whatever, a principle which has ever since been strictly adhered to. Following is the record of the national encampments of the Grand Army of the Republic held thus far, with the names of the commanders-in-chief elected:

1. Indianapolis, Ind., 1866; S. A. Hurlbut, Illinois.
2. Philadelphia, Pa., 1868; John A. Logan, Illinois.
3. Cincinnati, O., 1869; John A. Logan, Illinois.
4. Washington, 1870; John A. Logan, Illinois.
5. Boston, Mass., 1871; A. E. Burnside, Rhode Island.
6. Cleveland, O., 1872; A. E. Burnside, Rhode Island.
7. New Haven, Conn., 1873; Charles Devens, Jr., Massachusetts.
8. Harrisburg, Pa., 1874; Charles Devens, Jr., Massachusetts.
9. Chicago, Ill., 1875; John F. Hartranft, Pennsylvania.
10. Philadelphia, Pa., 1876; John F. Hartranft, Pennsylvania.
11. Providence, R. I., 1877; John C. Robinson, New York.
12. Springfield, Mass., 1878; John C. Robinson, New York.
13. Albany, N. Y., 1879; William Earnshaw, Ohio.
14. Dayton, O., 1880; Louis Wagner, Pennsylvania.
15. Indianapolis, Ind., 1881; George S. Merrill, Massachusetts.
16. Baltimore, Md., 1882; Paul Van Der Voort, Nebraska.
17. Denver, Col., 1883; Robert B. Beatte, Pennsylvania.
18. Minneapolis, Minn., 1884; John S. Kountz, Ohio.
19. Portland, Me., 1885; S. S. Burdett, Washington.
20. San Francisco, Cal., 1886; Lucius Fairchild, Wisconsin.
21. St. Louis, Mo., 1887; John P. Rea, Minnesota.
22. Columbus, O., 1888; William Warner, Missouri.
23. Milwaukee, Wis., 1889; Russell A. Alger, Michigan.
24. Boston, Mass., 1890; Wheelock G. Veasey, Vermont.
25. Detroit, Mich., 1891; John Palmer, New York.

26. Washington, 1892; A. G. Weissert, Wisconsin.
27. Indianapolis, Ind., 1893; John G. B. Adams, Massachusetts.
28. Pittsburg, Pa., 1894; Thomas G. Lawler, Illinois.
29. Louisville, Ky., 1895; Ivan N. Walker, Indiana.
30. St. Paul, Minn., 1896; Thaddeus S. Clarkson, Nebraska.
31. Buffalo, N. Y., 1897; John P. S. Gobin, Pennsylvania.
32. Cincinnati, O., 1898; *James A. Sexton, Illinois.
33. Cincinnati, O., 1898; W. C. Johnson, Ohio.
34. Philadelphia, Pa., 1899; Albert D. Shaw, New York.
35. Chicago, Ill., 1900; Leo Rassieur, Missouri.
36. Denver, Col., 1901; Eli Torrance, Missouri.
37. Washington, D. C., 1902; Thomas J. Stewart, Pennsylvania.
38. San Francisco, Cal., 1903; John C. Black, Illinois.
39. Boston, Mass., 1904; W. W. Blackmar, Massachusetts.

Grand Gulf, BATTLE AT. On the morning of April 29, 1863, Admiral Porter attacked the Confederate batteries at Grand Gulf, on the Mississippi, and after a contest of over five hours silenced the lower batteries. Grant, becoming convinced that Porter could not take the batteries, ordered him to run by them with gunboats and transports, as he had done at Vicksburg and Warrenton, while the army (on the west side of the river) should move down to Rodney, below, where it might cross without much opposition. At six o'clock in the evening, under cover of a heavy fire from the fleet, all the transports passed by in good condition.

Grand Remonstrance, THE. This remarkable document was a statement of the cause of the British Parliament against King Charles I., and was laid before the House of Commons by John Pym in November, 1641. It was adopted after a few days' debate, and was presented to the King on Dec. 1. As a reply, the King undertook the arrest and impeachment of Pym and four of his most active associates on Jan. 3, 1642; withdrew from London in the following week. On Aug. 9 the King issued a proclamation "for suppressing the present rebellion under the command of Robert, Earl of Essex," and inaugurated the Civil War by raising his standard at Nottingham on Aug. 22.

ATTACK OF THE GUNBOATS ON GRAND GULF.

The remonstrance and its introductory petition are here given in full:

Most Gracious Sovereign,—Your Majesty's most humble and faithful subjects the Commons in this present Parliament assembled, do with much thankfulness

* Died Feb. 5, 1899.

and joy acknowledge the great mercy and favour of God, in giving your Majesty a safe and peaceful return out of Scotland into your kingdom of England, where the pressing dangers and distempers of the State have caused us with much earnestness to desire the comfort of your gracious presence, and likewise the unity and justice of your royal authority, to give more life and power to the dutiful and loyal counsels and endeavours of your Parliament, for the prevention of that eminent ruin and destruction wherein your kingdoms of England and Scotland are threatened. The duty which we owe to your Majesty and our country, cannot but make us very sensible and apprehensive, that the multiplicity, sharpness and malignity of those evils under which we have now many years suffered, are fomented and cherished by a corrupt and ill-affected party, who amongst other their mischievous devices for the alteration of religion and government, have sought by many false scandals and imputations, cunningly insinuated and dispersed amongst the people, to blemish and disgrace our proceedings in this Parliament, and to get themselves a party and faction amongst your subjects, for the better strengthening themselves in their wicked courses, and hindering those provisions and remedies which might, by the wisdom of your Majesty and counsel of your Parliament, be opposed against them.

For preventing whereof, and the better information of your Majesty, your Peers and all other your loyal subjects, we have been necessitated to make a declaration of the state of the kingdom, both before and since the assembly of this Parliament, unto this time, which we do humbly present to your Majesty, without the least intention to lay any blemish upon your royal person, but only to represent how your royal authority and trust have been abused, to the great prejudice and danger of your Majesty, and of all your good subjects.

And because we have reason to believe that those malignant parties, whose proceedings evidently appear to be mainly for the advantage and increase of Popery, is composed, set up, and acted by the subtile practice of the Jesuits and other engineers and factors for Rome, and to the great danger of this kingdom, and most grievous affliction of your loyal subjects, have so far prevailed as to corrupt divers of your Bishops and others in prime places of the Church, and also to bring divers of these instruments to be of your Privy Council, and other employments of trust and nearness about your Majesty, the Prince, and the rest of your royal children.

And by this means have had such an operation in your counsel and the most important affairs and proceedings of your government, that a most dangerous division and chargeable preparation for war betwixt your kingdoms of England and Scotland, the increase of jealousies betwixt your Majesty and your most obedient subjects, the violent distraction and interruption of this Parliament, the insurrection of the Papists in your kingdom of Ireland, and bloody massacre of your people, have been not only endeavoured and attempted, but in a great measure compassed and effected.

For preventing the final accomplishment whereof, your poor subjects are enforced to engage their persons and estates to the maintaining of a very expensive and dangerous war, notwithstanding they have already since the beginning of this Parliament undergone the charge of £150,000 sterling, or thereabouts, for the necessary support and supply of your Majesty in these present and perilous designs. And because all our most faithful endeavours and engagements will be ineffectual for the peace, safety and preservation of your Majesty and your people, if some present, real and effectual course be not taken for suppressing this wicked and malignant party:—

We, your most humble and obedient subjects, do with all faithfulness and humility beseech your Majesty,—

1. That you will be graciously pleased to concur with the humble desires of your people in a parliamentary way, for the preserving the peace and safety of the kingdom from the malicious designs of the Popish party:—

For depriving the Bishops of their votes in Parliament, and abridging their immoderate power usurped over the Clergy, and other your good subjects, which they have perniciously abused to the hazard

of religion, and great prejudice and oppression of the laws of the kingdom, and just liberty of your people:—

For the taking away such oppressions in religion, Church government and discipline, as have been brought in and fomented by them:—

For uniting all such your loyal subjects together as join in the same fundamental truths against the Papists, by removing some oppressions and unnecessary ceremonies by which divers weak consciences have been scrupled, and seem to be divided from the rest, and for the due execution of those good laws which have been made for securing the liberty of your subjects.

2. That your Majesty will likewise be pleased to remove from your council all such as persist to favour and promote any of those pressures and corruptions wherein your people have been grieved, and that for the future your Majesty will vouchsafe to employ such persons in your great and public affairs, and to take such to be near you in places of trust, as your Parliament may have cause to confide in; that in your princely goodness to your people you will reject and refuse all mediation and solicitation to the contrary, how powerful and near soever.

3. That you will be pleased to forbear to alienate any of the forfeited and escheated lands in Ireland which shall accrue to your Crown by reason of this rebellion, that out of them the Crown may be the better supported, and some satisfaction made to your subjects of this kingdom for the great expenses they are like to undergo [in] this war.

Which humble desires of ours being graciously fulfilled by your Majesty, we will, by the blessing and favour of God, most cheerfully undergo the hazard and expenses of this war, and apply ourselves to such other courses and counsels as may support your real estate with honour and plenty at home, with power and reputation abroad, and by our loyal affections, obedience and service, lay a sure and lasting foundation of the greatness and prosperity of your Majesty, and your royal prosperity in future times.

The Grand Remonstrance.—The Commons in this present Parliament assembled, having with much earnestness and faithfulness of affection and zeal to the public good of this kingdom, and His Majesty's honour and service for the space of twelve months, wrestled with great dangers and fears, the pressing miseries and calamities, the various distempers and disorders which had not only assaulted, but even overwhelmed and extinguished the liberty, peace and prosperity of this kingdom, the comfort and hopes of all His Majesty's good subjects, and exceedingly weakened and undermined the foundation and strength of his own royal throne, do yet find an abounding malignity and opposition in those parties and factions who have been the cause of those evils, and do still labour to cast aspersions upon that which hath been done, and to raise many difficulties for the hindrance of that which remains yet undone, and to foment jealousies between the King and Parliament, that so they may deprive him and his people of the fruit of his own gracious intentions, and their humble desires of procuring the public peace, safety and happiness of this realm.

For the preventing of those miserable effects which such malicious endeavours may produce, we have thought good to declare the root and the growth of these mischievous designs: the maturity and ripeness to which they have attained before the beginning of the Parliament: the effectual means which have been used for the extirpation of those dangerous evils, and the progress which hath therein been made by His Majesty's goodness and the wisdom of the Parliament: the ways of obstruction and opposition by which that progress hath been interrupted: the courses to be taken for the removing those obstacles, and for the accomplishing of our most dutiful and faithful intentions and endeavours of restoring and establishing the ancient honour, greatness and security of this Crown and nation.

The root of all this mischief we find to be a malignant and pernicious design of subverting the fundamental laws and principles of government, upon which the religion and justice of this kingdom are firmly established. The actors and promoters hereof have been:

1. The Jesuited Papists, who hate the laws, as the obstacles of that change and

subversion of religion which they so much long for.

2. The Bishops, and the corrupt part of the Clergy, who cherish formality and superstition as the natural effects and more probable supports of their own ecclesiastical tyranny and usurpation.

3. Such Councillors and Courtiers as for private ends have engaged themselves to further the interests of some foreign princes or states to the prejudice of His Majesty and the State at home.

The common principles by which they moulded and governed all their particular counsels and actions were these:

First, to maintain continual differences and discontents between the King and the people, upon questions of prerogative and liberty, that so they might have the advantage of siding with him, and under the notions of men addicted to his service, gain to themselves and their parties the places of greatest trust and power in the kingdom.

A second, to suppress the purity and power of religion, and such persons as were best affected to it, as being contrary to their own ends, and the greatest impediment to that change which they thought to introduce.

A third, to conjoin those parties of the kingdom which were most propitious to their own ends, and to divide those who were most opposite, which consisted in many particular observations.

To cherish the Arminian part in those points wherein they agree with the Papists, to multiply and enlarge the difference between the common Protestants and those whom they call Puritans, to introduce and countenance such opinions and ceremonies as are fittest for accommodation with Popery, to increase and maintain ignorance, looseness and profaneness in the people; that of those three parties, Papists, Arminians and Libertines, they might compose a body fit to act such counsels and resolutions as were most conducible to their own ends.

A fourth, to disaffect the King to Parliaments by slander and false imputations, and by putting him upon other ways of supply, which in show and appearance were fuller of advantage than the ordinary course of subsidies, though in truth they brought more loss than gain both to the King and people, and have caused the great distractions under which we both suffer.

As in all compounded bodies the operations are qualified according to the predominant element, so in this mixed party, the Jesuited counsels, being most active and prevailing, may easily be discovered to have had the greatest sway in all their determinations, and if they be not prevented, are likely to devour the rest, or to turn them into their own nature.

In the beginning of His Majesty's reign the party began to revive and flourish again, having been somewhat damped by the breach with Spain in the last year of King James, and by His Majesty's marriage with France; the interests and counsels of that State being not so contrary to the good of religion and the prosperity of this kingdom as those of Spain; and the Papists of England, having been ever more addicted to Spain than France, yet they still retained a purpose and resolution to weaken the Protestant parties in all parts, and even in France, whereby to make way for the change of religion which they intended at home.

1. The first effect and evidence of their recovery and strength was the dissolution of the Parliament at Oxford, after there had been given two subsidies to His Majesty, and before they received relief in any one grievance many other more miserable effects followed.

2. The loss of the Rochel fleet, by the help of our shipping, set forth and delivered over to the French in opposition to the advice of Parliament, which left that town without defence by sea, and made way not only to the loss of that important place, but likewise to the loss of all the strength and security of the Protestant religion of France.

3. The diverting of His Majesty's course of wars from the West Indies, which was the most facile and hopeful way for this kingdom to prevail against the Spaniard, to an expenseful and successless attempt upon Cadiz, which was so ordered as if it had rather been intended to make us weary of war than to prosper in it.

4. The precipitate breach with France, by taking their ships to a great value without making recompense to the Eng-

lish, whose goods were thereupon imbarred and confiscated in that kingdom.

5. The peace with Spain without consent of Parliament, contrary to the promise of King James to both Houses, whereby the Palatine's cause was deserted and left to chargeable and hopeless treaties, which for the most part were managed by those who might justly be suspected to be no friends to that cause.

6. The charging of the kingdom with billeted soldiers in all parts of it, and the concomitant design of German horse, that the land might either submit with fear or be enforced with rigour to such arbitrary contributions as should be required of them.

7. The dissolving of Parliament in the second year of His Majesty's reign, after a declaration of their intent to grant five subsidies.

8. The exacting of the like proportion of five subsidies, after the Parliament dissolved, by commission of loan, and divers gentlemen and others imprisoned for not yielding to pay that loan, whereby many of them contracted such sicknesses as cost them their lives.

9. Great sums of money required and raised by privy seals.

10. An unjust and pernicious attempt to extort great payments from the subject by way of excise, and a commission issued under the seal to that purpose.

11. The Petition of Right, which was granted in full Parliament, blasted, with an illegal declaration to make it destructive to itself, to the power of Parliament, to the liberty of the subject, and to that purpose printed with it, and the Petition made of no use but to show the bold and presumptuous injustice of such ministers as durst break the laws and suppress the liberties of the kingdom, after they had been so solemnly and evidently declared.

12. Another Parliament dissolved 4 Car., the privilege of Parliament broken, by imprisoning divers members of the House, detaining them close prisoners for many months together, without the liberty of using books, pen, ink or paper; denying them all the comforts of life, all means of preservation of health, not permitting their wives to come unto them even in the time of their sickness.

13. And for the completing of that cruelty, after years spent in such miserable durance, depriving them of the necessary means of spiritual consolation, not suffering them to go abroad to enjoy God's ordinances in God's House, or God's ministers to come to them to minister comfort to them in their private chambers.

14. And to keep them still in this oppressed condition, not admitting them to be bailed according to law, yet vexing them with informations in inferior courts, sentencing and fining some of them for matters done in Parliament; and extorting the payments of those fines from them, enforcing others to put in security of good behavior before they could be released.

15. The imprisonment of the rest, which refused to be bound, still continued, which might have been perpetual if necessity had not the last year brought another Parliament to relieve them, of whom one died by the cruelty and harshness of his imprisonment, which would admit of no relaxation, notwithstanding the imminent danger of his life did sufficiently appear by the declaration of his physician, and his release, or at least his refreshment, was sought by many humble petitions, and his blood still cries either for vengeance or repentance of those Ministers of State, who have at once obstructed the course both of His Majesty's justice and mercy.

16. Upon the dissolution of both these Parliaments, untrue and scandalous declarations were published to asperse their proceedings, and some of their members unjustly; to make them odious, and colour the violence which was used against them; proclamations set out to the same purpose; and to the great dejecting of the hearts of the people, forbidding them even to speak of Parliaments.

17. After the breach of the Parliament in the fourth of His Majesty, injustice, oppression and violence broke in upon us without any restraint or moderation, and yet the first project was the great sums exacted thorough the whole kingdom for default of knighthood, which seemed to have some colour and shadow of a law, yet if it be rightly examined by that obsolete law which was pretended for it, it will be found to be against all the rules of justice, both in respect of the persons

charged, the proportion of the fines demanded, and the absurd and unreasonable manner of their proceedings.

18. Tonnage and Poundage hath been received without colour or pretence of law; many other heavy impositions continued against law, and some so unreasonable that the sum of the charge exceeds the value of the goods.

19. The Book of Rates lately enhanced to a high proportion, and such merchants that would not submit to their illegal and unreasonable payments, were vexed and oppressed above measure; and the ordinary course of justice, the common birthright of the subject of England, wholly obstructed unto them.

20. And although all this was taken upon pretence of guarding the seas, yet a new unheard-of tax of ship-money was devised, and upon the same pretence, by both of which there was charged upon the subject near £700,000 some years, and yet the merchants have been left so naked to the violence of the Turkish pirates, that many great ships of value and thousands of His Majesty's subjects have been taken by them, and do still remain in miserable slavery.

21. The enlargements of forests, contrary to *Carta de Foresta*, and the composition thereupon.

22. The exactions of coat and conduct money and divers other military charges.

23. The taking away the arms of trained bands of divers counties.

24. The desperate design of engrossing all the gunpowder into one hand, keeping it in the Tower of London, and setting so high a rate upon it that the poorer sort were not able to buy it, nor could any have it without license, thereby to leave the several parts of the kingdom destitute of their necessary defence, and by selling so dear that which was sold to make an unlawful advantage of it, to the great charge and detriment of the subject.

25. The general destruction of the King's timber, especially that in the Forest of Deane, sold to Papists, which was the best store-house of this kingdom for the maintenance of our shipping.

26. The taking away of men's right, under the colour of the King's title to land, between high and low water marks.

27. The monopolies of soap, salt, wine, leather, sea-coal, and in a manner of all things of most common and necessary use.

28. The restraint of the liberties of the subjects in their habitation, trades and other interests.

29. Their vexation and oppression by purveyors, clerks of the market and saltpetre men.

30. The sale of pretended nuisances, as building in and about London.

31. Conversion of arable into pasture, continuance of pasture, under the name of depopulation, have driven many millions out of the subjects' purses, without any considerable profit to His Majesty.

32. Large quantities of common and several grounds hath been taken from the subject by colour of the Statute of Improvement, and by abuse of the Commission of Sewers, without their consent, and against it.

33. And not only private interest, but also public faith, have been broken in seizing of the money and bullion in the mint, and the whole kingdom like to be robbed at once in that abominable project of brass money.

34. Great numbers of His Majesty's subjects for refusing those unlawful charges, have been vexed with long and expensive suits, some fined and censured, others committed to long and hard imprisonments and confinements, to the loss of health in many, of life in some, and others have had their houses broken up, their goods seized, some have been restrained from their lawful callings.

35. Ships have been interrupted in their voyages, surprised at sea in a hostile manner by projectors, as by a common enemy.

36. Merchants prohibited to unlade their goods in such ports as were for their own advantage, and forced to bring them to those places which were much for the advantage of the monopolisers and projectors.

37. The Court of Star Chamber hath abounded in extravagant censures, not only for the maintenance and improvement of monopolies and other unlawful taxes, but for divers other causes where there hath been no offence, or very small;

whereby His Majesty's subjects have been oppressed by grievous fines, imprisonments, stigmatisings, mutilations, whippings, pillories, gags, confinements, banishments; after so rigid a manner as hath not only deprived men of the society of their friends, exercise of their professions, comfort of books, use of paper or ink, but even violated that near union which God hath established between men and their wives, by forced and constrained separation, whereby they have been bereaved of the comfort and conversation one of another for many years together, without hope of relief, if God had not by His overruling providence given some interruption to the prevailing power, and counsel of those who were the authors and promoters of such peremptory and heady courses.

38. Judges have been put out of their places for refusing to do against their oaths and consciences; others have been so awed that they durst not do their duties, and the better to hold a rod over them, the clause *Quam diu se bene gesserit* was left out of their patents, and a new clause, *Durante bene placito*, inserted.

39. Lawyers have been checked for being faithful to their clients; solicitors and attorneys have been threatened, and some punished, for following lawful suits. And by this means all the approaches to justice were interrupted and forecluded.

40. New oaths have been forced upon the subject against law.

41. New judicatories erected without law. The Council Table have by their orders offered to bind the subjects in their freeholds, estates, suits and actions.

42. The pretended Court of the Earl Marshal was arbitrary and illegal in its being and proceedings.

43. The Chancery, Exchequer Chamber, Court of Wards, and other English Courts, have been grievous in exceeding their jurisdiction.

44. The estate of many families weakened, and some ruined by excessive fines, exacted from them for compositions of wardships.

45. All leases of above a hundred years made to draw on wardship contrary to law.

46. Undue proceedings used in the finding of officers to make the jury find for the King.

47. The Common Law Courts, feeling all men more inclined to seek justice there, where it may be fitted to their own desire, are known frequently to forsake the rules of the Common Law, and straying beyond their bounds, under pretence of equity, to do injustice.

48. Titles of honour, judicial places, sergeantships at law, and other offices have been sold for great sums of money, whereby the common justice of the kingdom hath been much endangered, not only by opening a way of employment in places of great trust, and advantage to men of weak parts, but also by giving occasion to bribery, extortion, partiality, it seldom happening that places ill-gotten are well used.

49. Commissions have been granted for examining the excess of fees, and when great exactions have been discovered, compositions have been made with delinquents, not only for the time past, but likewise for immunity and security in offending for the time to come, which under colour of remedy hath but confirmed and increased the grievance to the subject.

50. The usual course of pricking Sheriffs not observed, but many times Sheriffs made in an extraordinary way, sometimes as a punishment and charge unto them; sometimes such were pricked out as would be instruments to execute whatsoever they would have to be done.

51. The Bishops and the rest of the Clergy did triumph in the suspensions, excommunications, deprivations, and degradations of divers painful, learned and pious ministers, in the vexation and grievous oppression of great numbers of His Majesty's good subjects.

52. The High Commission grew to such excess of sharpness and severity as was not much less than the Romish Inquisition, and yet in many cases by the Archbishop's power was made much more heavy, being assisted and strengthened by authority of the Council Table.

53. The Bishops and their Courts were as eager in the country; although their jurisdiction could not reach so high in rigour and extremity of punishment, yet were they no less grievous in respect of the generality and multiplicity of vexations, which lighting upon the meaner

sort of tradesmen and artificers did impoverish many thousands.

54. And so afflict and trouble others, that great numbers to avoid their miseries departed out of the kingdom, some into New England and other parts of America, others into Holland.

55. Where they have transported their manufactures of cloth, which is not only a loss by diminishing the present stock of the kingdom, but a great mischief by impairing and endangering the loss of that particular trade of clothing, which hath been a plentiful fountain of wealth and honour to this nation.

56. Those were fittest for ecclesiastical preferment, and soonest obtained it, who were most officious in promoting superstition, most virulent in railing against godliness and honesty.

57. The most public and solemn sermons before His Majesty were either to advance prerogative above law, and decry the property of the subject, or full of such kind of invectives.

58. Whereby they might make those odious who sought to maintain the religion, laws and liberties of the kingdom, and such men were sure to be weeded out of the commission of the peace, and out of all other employments of power in the government of the country.

59. Many noble personages were councillors in name, but the power and authority remained in a few of such as were most addicted to this party, whose resolutions and determinations were brought to the table for countenance and execution, and not for debate and deliberation, and no man could offer to oppose them without disgrace and hazard to himself.

60. Nay, all those that did not wholly concur and actively contribute to the furtherance of their designs, though otherwise persons of never so great honour and abilities, were so far from being employed in any place of trust and power, that they were neglected, discountenanced, and upon all occasions injured and oppressed.

61. This faction was grown to that height and entireness of power, that now they began to think of finishing their work, which consisted of these three parts.

62. I. The government must be set free from all restraint of laws concerning our persons and estates.

63. II. There must be a conjunction between Papists and Protestants in doctrine, discipline and ceremonies; only it must not yet be called Popery.

64. III. The Puritans, under which name they include all those that desire to preserve the laws and liberties of the kingdom, and to maintain religion in the power of it, must be either rooted out of the kingdom with force, or driven out with fear.

65. For the effecting of this it was thought necessary to reduce Scotland to such Popish superstitions and innovations as might make them apt to join with England in that great change which was intended.

66. Whereupon new canons and a new liturgy were pressed upon them, and when they refused to admit of them, an army was raised to force them to it, towards which the Clergy and the Papists were very forward in their contribution.

67. The Scots likewise raised an army for their defence.

68. And when both armies were come together, and ready for a bloody encounter, His Majesty's own gracious disposition, and the counsel of the English nobility and dutiful submission of the Scots, did so far prevail against the evil counsel of others, that a pacification was made, and His Majesty returned with peace and much honour to London.

69. The unexpected reconciliation was most acceptable to all the kingdom, except to the malignant party; whereof the Archbishop and the Earl of Strafford being heads, they and their faction begun to inveigh against the peace, and to aggravate the proceedings of the states, which so increased His Majesty, that he forthwith prepared again for war.

70. And such was their confidence, that having corrupted and distempered the whole frame and government of the kingdom, they did now hope to corrupt that which was the only means to restore all to a right frame and temper again.

71. To which end they persuaded His Majesty to call a Parliament, not to seek counsel and advice of them, but to draw countenance and supply from them, and to engage the whole kingdom in their quarrel.

72. And in the meantime continued all

their unjust levies of money, resolving either to make the Parliament pliant to their will, and to establish mischief by a law, or else to break it, and with more colour to go on by violence to take what they could not obtain by consent. The ground alleged for the justification of this war was this,

73. That the undutiful demands of the Parliaments in Scotland was a sufficient reason for His Majesty to take arms against them, without hearing the reason of those demands, and thereupon a new army was prepared against them, their ships were seized in all ports both of England and Ireland, and at sea, their petitions rejected, their commissioners refused audience.

74. The whole kingdom most miserably distempered with levies of men and money, and imprisonments of those who denied to submit to those levies.

75. The Earl of Strafford passed into Ireland, caused the Parliament there to declare against the Scots, to give four subsidies towards that war, and to engage themselves, their lives and fortunes, for the prosecution of it, and gave directions for an army of eight thousand foot and one thousand horse to be levied there, which were for the most part Papists.

76. The Parliament met upon the 13th of April, 1640. The Earl of Strafford and Archbishop of Canterbury, with their party, so prevailed with His Majesty, that the House of Commons was pressed to yield a supply for maintenance of the war with Scotland, before they had provided any relief for the great and pressing grievances of the people, which being against the fundamental privilege and proceeding of Parliament, was yet in humble respect to His Majesty, so far admitted as that they agreed to take the matter of supply into consideration, and two several days it was debated.

77. Twelve subsidies were demanded for the release of ship-money alone, a third day was appointed for conclusion, when the heads of that party begun to fear the people might close with the King, in falsifying his desires of money; but that withal they were like to blast their malicious designs against Scotland, finding them very much indisposed to give any countenance to that war.

78. Thereupon they wickedly advised the King to break off the Parliament and to return to the ways of confusion, in which their own evil intentions were most likely to prosper and succeed.

79. After the Parliament ended the 5th of May, 1640, this party grew so bold as to counsel the King to supply himself out of his subjects' estates by his own power, at his own will, without their consent.

80. The very next day some members of both Houses had their studies and cabinets, yea, their pockets searched: another of them not long after was committed close prisoner for not delivering some petitions which he received by authority of that House.

81. And if harsher courses were intended (as was reported) it is very probable that the sickness of the Earl of Strafford, and the tumultuous rising in Southwark and about Lambeth were the causes that such violent intentions were not brought to execution.

82. A false and scandalous Declaration against the House of Commons was published in His Majesty's name, which yet wrought little effect with the people, but only to manifest the impudence of those who were authors of it.

83. A forced loan of money was attempted in the City of London.

84. The Lord Mayor and Aldermen in their several wards, enjoined to bring in a list of the names of such persons as they judged fit to lend, and of the sums they should lend. And such Aldermen as refused to do so were committed to prison.

85. The Archbishop and the other Bishops and Clergy continued the Convocation, and by a new commission turned it into a provincial Synod, in which, by an unheard-of presumption, they made canons that contain in them many matters contrary to the King's prerogative, to the fundamental laws and statutes of the realm, to the right of Parliaments, to the property and liberty of the subject, and matters tending to sedition and of dangerous consequence, thereby establishing their own usurpations, justifying their altar-worship, and those other superstitious innovations which they formerly introduced without warrant of law.

86. They imposed a new oath upon

divers of His Majesty's subjects, both ecclesiastical and lay, for maintenance of their own tyranny, and laid a great tax on the Clergy, for supply of His Majesty, and generally they showed themselves very affectionate to the war with Scotland, which was by some of them styled *Bellum Episcopale*, and a prayer composed and enjoined to be read in all churches, calling the Scots rebels, to put the two nations in blood and make them irreconcileable.

87. All those pretended canons and constitutions were armed with the several censures of suspension, excommunication, deprivation, by which they would have thrust out all the good ministers, and most of the well-affected people of the kingdom, and left an easy passage to their own design of reconciliation with Rome.

88. The Popish party enjoyed such exemptions from penal laws as amounted to a toleration, besides many other encouragements and Court favours.

89. They had a Secretary of State, Sir Francis Windebanck, a powerful agent for speeding all their desires.

90. A Pope's Nuncio residing here, to act and govern them according to such influences as he received from Rome, and to intercede for them with the most powerful concurrence of the foreign Princes of that religion.

91. By his authority the Papists of all sorts, nobility, gentry, and clergy were convocated after the manner of a Parliament.

92. New jurisdictions were erected of Romish Archbishops, taxes levied, another state moulded within this state independent in government, contrary in interest and affection, secretly corrupting the ignorant or negligent professors of our religion, and closely uniting and combining themselves against such as were found in this posture, waiting for an opportunity by force to destroy those whom they could not hope to seduce.

93. For the effecting whereof they were strengthened with arms and munitions, encouraged by superstitious prayers, enjoined by the Nuncio to be weekly made for the prosperity of some great design.

94. And such power had they at Court, that secretly a commission was issued out, or intended to be issued to some great men of that profession, for the levying of soldiers, and to command and employ them according to private instructions, which we doubt were framed for the advantage of those who were the contrivers of them.

95. His Majesty's treasure was consumed, his revenue anticipated.

96. His servants and officers compelled to lend great sums of money.

97. Multitudes were called to the Council Table, who were tired with long attendances there for refusing illegal payments.

98. The prisons were filled with their commitments; many of the Sheriffs summoned into the Star Chamber, and some imprisoned for not being quick enough in levying the ship-money; the people languished under grief and fear, no visible hope being left but in desperation.

99. The nobility began to weary of their silence and patience, and sensible of the duty and trust which belongs to them: and thereupon some of the most ancient of them did petition His Majesty at such a time, when evil counsels were so strong, that they had occasion to expect more hazard to themselves, than redress of those public evils for which they interceded.

100. Whilst the kingdom was in this agitation and distemper, the Scots, restrained in their trades, impoverished by the loss of many of their ships, bereaved of all possibility of satisfying His Majesty by any naked supplication, entered with a powerful army into the kingdom, and without any hostile act or spoil in the country they passed, more than forcing a passage over the Tyne at Newburn, near Newcastle, possessed themselves of Newcastle, and had a fair opportunity to press on further upon the King's army.

101. But duty and reverence to His Majesty, and brotherly love to the English nation, made them stay there, whereby the King had leisure to entertain better counsels.

102. Wherein God so blessed and directed him that he summoned the Great Council of Peers to meet at York upon the 24th of September, and there declared a Parliament to begin the 3d of November then following.

103. The Scots, the first day of the Great Council, presented an humble Pe-

tition to His Majesty, whereupon the Treaty was appointed at Ripon.

104. A present cessation of arms agreed upon, and the full conclusion of all differences referred to the wisdom and care of the Parliament.

105. At our first meeting, all oppositions seemed to vanish, the mischiefs were so evident which those evil counsellors produced, that no man durst stand up to defend them: yet the work itself afforded difficulty enough.

106. The multiplied evils and corruption of fifteen years, strengthened by custom and authority, and the concurrent interest of many powerful delinquents, were now to be brought to judgment and reformation.

107. The King's household was to be provided for:—they had brought him to that want, that he could not supply his ordinary and necessary expenses without the assistance of his people.

108. Two armies were to be paid, which amounted very near to eighty thousand pounds a month.

109. The people were to be tenderly charged, having been formerly exhausted with many burdensome projects.

110. The difficulties seemed to be insuperable, which by the Divine Providence we have overcome. The contrarieties incompatible, which yet in a great measure we have reconciled.

111. Six subsidies have been granted and a Bill of poll-money, which if it be duly levied, may equal six subsidies more, in all £600,000.

112. Besides we have contracted a debt to the Scots of £220,000, yet God hath so blessed the endeavours of this Parliament, that the kingdom is a great gainer by all these charges.

113. The ship-money is abolished, which cost the kingdom about £200,000 a year.

114. The coat and conduct-money, and other military charges are taken away, which in many countries amounted to little less than the ship-money.

115. The monopolies are all suppressed, whereof some few did prejudice the subject, above £1,000,000 yearly.

116. The soap £100,000.

117. The wine £300,000.

118. The leather must needs exceed both, and salt could be no less than that.

119. Besides the inferior monopolies, which, if they could be exactly computed, would make up a great sum.

120. That which is more beneficial than all this is, that the root of these evils is taken away, which was the arbitrary power pretended to be in His Majesty of taxing the subject, or charging their estates without consent in Parliament, which is now declared to be against law by the judgment of both Houses, and likewise by an Act of Parliament.

121. Another step of great advantage is this, the living grievances, the evil counsellors and actors of these mischiefs have been so quelled.

122. By the justice done upon the Earl of Strafford, the flight of the Lord Finch and Secretary Windebanck.

123. The accusation and imprisonment of the Archbishop of Canterbury, of Judge Berkeley; and

124. The impeachment of divers other Bishops and Judges, that it is like not only to be an ease to the present times, but a preservation to the future.

125. The discontinuance of Parliaments is prevented by the Bill for a triennial Parliament, and the abrupt dissolution of this Parliament by another Bill, by which it is provided it shall not be dissolved or adjourned without the consent of both Houses.

126. Which two laws well considered may be thought more advantageous than all the former, because they secure a full operation of the present remedy, and afford a perpetual spring of remedies for the future.

127. The Star Chamber.

128. The High Commission.

129. The Courts of the President and Council in the North were so many forges of misery, oppression and violence, and are all taken away, whereby men are more secured in their persons, liberties and estates, than they could be by any law or example for the regulation of those Courts or terror of the Judges.

130. The immoderate power of the Council Table, and the excessive abuse of that power is so ordered and restrained, that we may well hope that no such things as were frequently done by them, to the prejudice of the public liberty, will appear in future times but only in stories,

to give us and our posterity more occasion to praise God for His Majesty's goodness, and the faithful endeavours of this Parliament.

131. The canons and power of canon-making are blasted by the votes of both Houses.

132. The exorbitant power of Bishops and their courts are much abated, by some provisions in the Bill against the High Commission Court, the authors of the many innovations in doctrine and ceremonies.

133. The ministers that have been scandalous in their lives, have been so terrified in just complaints and accusations, that we may well hope they will be more modest for the time to come; either inwardly convicted by the sight of their own folly, or outwardly restrained by the fear of punishment.

134. The forests are by a good law reduced to their right bounds.

135. The encroachments and oppressions of the Stannary Courts, the extortions of the clerk of the market.

136. And the compulsion of the subject to receive the Order of Knighthood against his will, paying of fines for not receiving it, and the vexatious proceedings thereupon for levying of those fines, are by other beneficial laws reformed and prevented.

137. Many excellent laws and provisions are in preparation for removing the inordinate power, vexation and usurpation of Bishops, for reforming the pride and idleness of many of the clergy, for easing the people of unnecessary ceremonies in religion, for censuring and removing unworthy and unprofitable ministers, and for maintaining godly and diligent preachers through the kingdom.

138. Other things of main importance for the good of this kingdom are in proposition, though little could hitherto be done in regard of the many other more pressing businesses, which yet before the end of this Session we hope may receive some progress and perfection.

139. The establishing and ordering the King's revenue, that so the abuse of officers and superfluity of expenses may be cut off, and the necessary disbursements for His Majesty's honour, the defence and government of the kingdom, may be more certainly provided for.

140. The regulating of courts of justice, and abridging both the delays and charges of law-suits.

141. The settling of some good courses for preventing the exportation of gold and silver, and the inequality of exchanges between us and other nations, for the advancing of native commodities, increase of our manufactures, and well balancing of trade, whereby the stock of the kingdom may be increased, or at least kept from impairing, as through neglect hereof it hath done for many years last past.

142. Improving the herring-fishing upon our coasts, which will be of mighty use in the employment of the poor, and a plentiful nursery of mariners for enabling the kingdom in any great action.

143. The oppositions, obstructions and other difficulties wherewith we have been encountered, and which still lie in our way with some strength and much obstinacy, are these: the malignant party whom we have formerly described to be the actors and promoters of all our misery, they have taken heart again.

144. They have been able to prefer some of their own factors and agents to degrees of honour, to places of trust and employment, even during the Parliament.

145. They have endeavoured to work in His Majesty ill impressions and opinions of our proceedings, as if we had altogether done our own work, and not his; and had obtained from him many things very prejudicial to the Crown, both in respect of prerogative and profit.

146. To wipe out this slander we think good only to say thus much: that all that we have done is for His Majesty, his greatness, honour and support, when we yield to give £25,000 a month for the relief of the Northern Counties; this was given to the King, for he was bound to protect his subjects.

147. They were His Majesty's evil counsellors, and their ill instruments that were actors in those grievances which brought in the Scots.

148. And if His Majesty please to force those who were the authors of this war to make satisfaction, as he might justly and easily do, it seems very reasonable that the people might well be excused

from taking upon them this burden, being altogether innocent and free from being any cause of it.

149. When we undertook the charge of the army, which cost above £50,000 a month, was not this given to the King? Was it not His Majesty's army? Were not all the commanders under contract with His Majesty, at higher rates and greater wages than ordinary?

150. And have not we taken upon us to discharge all the brotherly assistance of £300,000, which we gave the Scots? Was it not toward repair of those damages and losses which they received from the King's ships and from his ministers?

151. These three particulars amount to above £1,100,000.

152. Besides, His Majesty hath received by impositions upon merchandise at least £400,000.

153. So that His Majesty hath had out of the subjects' purse since the Parliament began £1,500,000, and yet these men can be so impudent as to tell His Majesty that we have done nothing for him.

154. As to the second branch of this slander, we acknowledge with much thankfulness that His Majesty hath passed more good Bills to the advantage of the subjects than have been in many ages.

155. But withal we cannot forget that these venomous councils did manifest themselves in some endeavours to hinder these good acts.

156. And for both Houses of Parliament we may with truth and modesty say thus much: that we have ever been careful not to desire anything that should weaken the Crown either in just profit or useful power.

157. The triennial Parliament for the matter of it, doth not extend to so much as by law we ought to have required (there being two statutes still in force for a Parliament to be once a year), and for the manner of it, it is in the King's power that it shall never take effect, if he by a timely summons shall prevent any other way of assembling.

158. In the Bill for continuance of this present Parliament, there seems to be some restraint of the royal power in dissolving of Parliaments, not to take it out of the Crown, but to suspend the execution of it for this time and occasion only: which was so necessary for the King's own security and the public peace, that without it we could not have undertaken any of these great charges, but must have left both the armies to disorder and confusion, and the whole kingdom to blood and rapine.

159. The Star Chamber was much more fruitful in oppression than in profit, the great fines being for the most part given away, and the rest stalled at long times.

160. The fines of the High Commissioner were in themselves unjust, and seldom or never came into the King's purse. These four Bills are particularly and more specially instanced.

161. In the rest there will not be found so much as a shadow of prejudice to the Crown.

162. They have sought to diminish our reputation with the people, and to bring them out of love with Parliaments.

163. The aspersions which they have attempted this way have been such as these:

164. That we have spent much time and done little, especially in those grievances which concern religion.

165. That the Parliament is a burden to the kingdom by the abundance of protections which hinder justice and trade; and by many subsidies granted much more heavy than any formerly endured.

166. To which there is a ready answer; if the time spent in this Parliament be considered in relation backward to the long growth and deep root of those grievances, which we have removed, to the powerful supports of those delinquents, which we have pursued, to the great necessities and other charges of the commonwealth for which we have provided.

167. Or if it be considered in relation forward to many advantages, which not only the present but future ages are like to reap by the good laws and other proceedings in this Parliament, we doubt not but it will be thought by all indifferent judgments, that our time hath been much better employed than in a far greater proportion of time in many former Parlia-

ments put together; and the charges which have been laid upon the subject, and the other inconveniences which they have borne, will seem very light in respect of the benefit they have and may receive.

168. And for the matter of protections, the Parliament is so sensible of it that therein they intended to give them whatsoever ease may stand with honour and justice, and are in a way of passing a Bill to give them satisfaction.

169. They have sought by many subtle practices to cause jealousies and divisions betwixt us and our brethren of Scotland, by slandering their proceedings and intentions towards us, and by secret endeavours to instigate and incense them and us one against another.

170. They have had such a party of Bishops and Popish lords in the House of Peers, as hath caused much opposition and delay in the prosecution of delinquents, hindered the proceedings of diverse good Bills passed in the Commons' House, concerning the reformation of sundry great abuses and corruptions both in Church and State.

171. They have laboured to seduce and corrupt some of the Commons' House to draw them into conspiracies and combinations against the liberty of the Parliament.

172. And by their instruments and agents they have attempted to disaffect and discontent His Majesty's army, and to engage it for the maintenance of their wicked and traitorous designs; the keeping up of Bishops in votes and functions, and by force to compel the Parliament to order, limit and dispose their proceedings in such manner as might best concur with the intentions of this dangerous and potent faction.

173. And when one mischievous design and attempt of theirs to bring on the army against the Parliament and the City of London, hath been discovered and prevented;

174. They presently undertook another of the same damnable nature, with this addition to it, to endeavour to make the Scottish army neutral, whilst the English army, which they had laboured to corrupt and envenom against us by their false and slanderous suggestions, should execute their malice to the subversion of our religion and the dissolution of our government.

175. Thus they have been continually practising to disturb the peace, and plotting the destruction even of all the King's dominions; and have employed their emissaries and agents in them, all for the promoting their devilish designs, which the vigilancy of those who were well affected hath still discovered and defeated before they were ripe for execution in England and Scotland.

176. Only in Ireland, which was farther off, they have had time and opportunity to mould and prepare their work, and had brought it to that perfection that they had possessed themselves of that whole kingdom, totally subverted the government of it, routed out religion, and destroyed all the Protestants whom the conscience of their duty to God, their King and country, would not have permitted to join with them, if by God's wonderful providence their main enterprise upon the city and castle of Dublin, had not been detected and prevented upon the very eve before it should have been executed.

177. Notwithstanding they have in other parts of that kingdom broken out into open rebellion, surprising towns and castles, committed murders, rapes and other villainies, and shaken off all bonds of obedience to His Majesty and the laws of the realm.

178. And in general have kindled such a fire, as nothing but God's infinite blessing upon the wisdom and endeavours of this State will be able to quench it.

179. And certainly had not God in His great mercy unto this land discovered and confounded their former designs, we had been the prologue to this tragedy in Ireland, and had by this been made the lamentable spectacle of misery and confusion.

180. And now what hope have we but in God, when as the only means of our subsistence and power of reformation is under Him in the Parliament.

181. But what can we the Commons, without the conjunction of the House of Lords, and what conjunction can we expect there, when the Bishops and recu-

sant lords are so numerous and prevalent that they are able to cross and interrupt our best endeavours for reformation, and by that means give advantage to this malignant party to traduce our proceedings?

182. They infuse into the people that we mean to abolish all Church government, and leave every man to his own fancy for the service and worship of God, absolving him of that obedience which he owes under God unto His Majesty, whom we know to be entrusted with the ecclesiastical law as well as with the temporal, to regulate all the members of the Church of England, by such rules of order and discipline as are established by Parliament, which is his great council, in all affairs both in Church and State.

183. We confess our intention is, and our endeavors have been, to reduce within bounds that exorbitant power which the prelates have assumed unto themselves, so contrary both to the Word of God and to the laws of the land, to which end we passed the Bill for the removing them from their temporal power and employments, that so the better they might with meekness apply themselves to the discharge of their functions, which Bill themselves opposed, and were the principal instruments of crossing it.

184. And we do here declare that it is far from our purpose or desire to let loose the golden reins of discipline and government in the Church, to leave private persons or particular congregations to take up what form of Divine Service they please, for we hold it requisite that there should be throughout the whole realm a conformity to that order which the laws enjoin according to the Word of God. And we desire to unburden the consciences of men of needless and superstitious ceremonies, suppress innovations, and take away the monuments of idolatry.

185. And the better to effect the intended reformation, we desire there may be a general synod of the most grave, pious, learned and judicious divines of this island; assisted with some from foreign parts, professing the same religion with us, who may consider of all things necessary for the peace and good government of the Church, and represent the results of their consultations unto the Parliament, to be there allowed of and confirmed, and receive the stamp of authority, thereby to find passage and obedience throughout the kingdom.

186. They have maliciously charged us that we intend to destroy and discourage learning, whereas it is our chiefest care and desire to advance it, and to provide a competent maintenance for conscionable and preaching ministers throughout the kingdom, which will be a great encouragement to scholars, and a certain means whereby the want, meanness and ignorance, to which a great part of the clergy is now subject, will be prevented.

187. And we intended likewise to reform and purge the fountains of learning, the two Universities, that the streams flowing from thence may be clear and pure, and an honour and comfort to the whole land.

188. They have strained to blast our proceedings in Parliament, by wresting the interpretations of our orders from their genuine intention.

189. They tell the people that our meddling with the power of episcopacy hath caused sectaries and conventicles, when idolatrous and Popish ceremonies, introduced into the Church by the command of the Bishops have not only debarred the people from thence, but expelled them from the kingdom.

190. Thus with Elijah, we are called by this malignant party the troublers of the State, and still, while we endeavour to reform their abuses, they make us the authors of those mischiefs we study to prevent.

191. For the perfecting of the work begun, and removing all future impediments, we conceive these courses will be very effectual, seeing the religion of the Papists hath such principles as do certainly tend to the destruction and extirpation of all Protestants, when they shall have opportunity to effect it.

192. It is necessary in the first place to keep them in such condition as that they may not be able to do us any hurt, and for avoiding of such connivance and favour as hath heretofore been shown unto them.

193. That His Majesty be pleased to grant a standing Commission to some choice men named in Parliament, who

may take notice of their increase, their counsels and proceedings, and use all due means by execution of the laws to prevent all mischievous designs against the peace and safety of this kingdom.

194. Thus some good course be taken to discover the counterfeit and false conformity of Papists to the Church, by colour whereof persons very much disaffected to the true religion have been admitted into place of greatest authority and trust in the kingdom.

195. For the better preservation of the laws and liberties of the kingdom, that all illegal grievances and exactions be presented and punished at the sessions and assizes.

196. And that Judges and Justices be very careful to give this in charge to the grand jury, and both the Sheriff and Justices to be sworn to the due execution of the Petition of Right and other laws.

197. That His Majesty be humbly petitioned by both Houses to employ such counsellors, ambassadors and other ministers, in managing his business at home and abroad as the Parliament may have cause to confide in, without which we cannot give His Majesty such supplies for support of his own estate, nor such assistance to the Protestant party beyond the sea, as is desired.

198. It may often fall out that the Commons may have just cause to take exceptions at some men for being councillors, and yet not charge those men with crimes, for there be grounds of diffidence which lie not in proof.

199. There are others, which though they may be proved, yet are not legally criminal.

200. To be a known favourer of Papists, or to have been very forward in defending or countenancing some great offenders questioned in Parliament; or to speak contemptuously of either Houses of Parliament or Parliamentary proceedings.

201. Or such as are factors or agents for any foreign prince of another religion; such are justly suspected to get councillors' places, or any other of trust concerning public employment for money; for all these and divers others we may have great reason to be earnest with His Majesty, not to put his great affairs into such hands, though we may be unwilling to proceed against them in any legal way of charge or impeachment.

202. That all Councillors of State may be sworn to observe those laws which concern the subject in his liberty, that they may likewise take an oath not to receive or give reward or pension from any foreign prince, but such as they shall within some reasonable time discover to the Lords of His Majesty's Council.

203. And although they should wickedly forswear themselves, yet it may herein do good to make them known to be false and perjured to those who employ them, and thereby bring them into as little credit with them as with us.

204. That His Majesty may have cause to be in love with good counsel and good men, by shewing him in an humble and dutiful manner how full of advantage it would be to himself, to see his own estate settled in a plentiful condition to support his honour; to see his people united in ways of duty to him, and endeavours of the public good, etc.

Granger, FRANCIS, statesman; born in Suffield, Conn., Dec. 1, 1792; graduated at Yale in 1811; Whig candidate for Vice-President in 1836; member of Congress, 1835–37 and 1839–41; Postmaster-General in 1841. He died in Canandaigua, N. Y., Aug. 28, 1868.

Granger, GIDEON, statesman; born in Suffield, Conn., July 19, 1767; graduated at Yale College in 1787; became a lawyer; Postmaster-General in 1801–14. His publications include a Fourth of July oration and *Political Essays.* He died in Canandaigua, N. Y., Dec. 31, 1822.

Granger, GORDON, military officer; born in New York City, in 1821; graduated at West Point in 1845; served in the war with Mexico. He served under Halleck and Grant in the West, and was made major-general of volunteers, Sept. 17, 1862. He commanded the district of central Kentucky, was put in command of the 4th Army Corps after the battle of Chickamauga, was engaged in the struggle on Missionary Ridge, November, 1863, and was active in the military movements that led to the capture of Mobile in 1864. He was mustered out of the volunteer service in 1866; was promoted to colonel in the regular army the same year; and died in Santa Fé, N. M., Jan. 10, 1876.

Granger, MOSES MOORHEAD, lawyer; born in Zanesville, O., Oct. 22, 1831; graduated at Kenyon College in 1850; practised law at Zanesville from 1853 to 1861; served throughout the Civil War in the National army with much distinction, and received the brevet of colonel. He is the author of *Washington Versus Jefferson,* and *The Case Tried by Battle in 1861–65.*

Grangers. See HUSBANDRY, PATRONS OF.

Granite State, a popular name for the State of New Hampshire, because the mountainous portions of it are largely composed of granite.

Grant, FREDERICK DENT, military officer; born in St. Louis, Mo., May 30, 1850; eldest son of Ulysses S. Grant; was with his father at various times during the Civil War; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1871; accompanied General Sherman on his European trip in 1872; was appointed aide-de-camp on the staff of General Sheridan with the rank of lieutenant-colonel in 1873; took

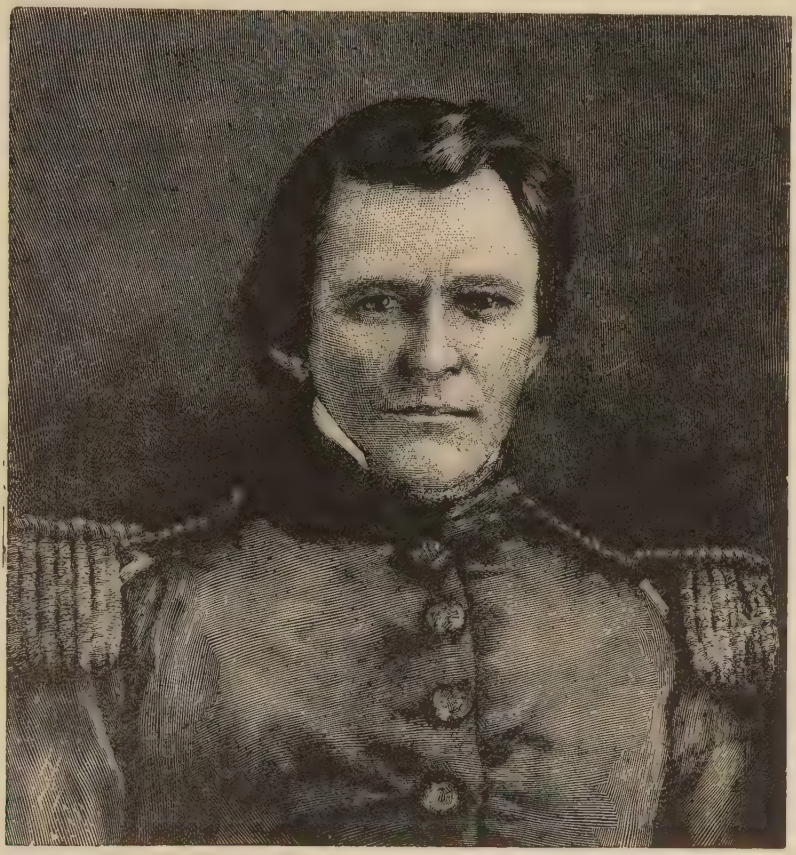
FREDERICK DENT GRANT.

part in the campaign on the frontier against the Indians; accompanied his father on his trip around the world; and resigned his commission in the army in 1881. In 1887 he was defeated as Republican candidate for secretary of state of New York, and in 1889 President Harrison appointed him minister to Austria-Hungary, where he remained till 1893. He was a police commissioner in New York City through the administration of Mayor Strong. In 1898, on the call for volunteers for the war with Spain, Colonel Grant offered his services to the President, and went to the front as colonel of the 14th New York regiment. On May 27 he was appointed a brigadier-general of volunteers; served in the Porto Rico campaign; and after the war was appointed commander of the military district of San Juan. While holding this post he organized an effective police force for the city similar in plan to that of New York City. Subsequently he was ordered to the Philippine Islands, where he rendered such valuable service in operations against the insurgents, and also as an administrative officer, that on the reorganization of the regular army in February, 1901, President McKinley appointed him one of the new brigadier-generals. In August, 1904, he was given command of the Department of the East.

Grant, JAMES, military officer; born in Ballendalloch, Scotland, in 1720; was major of the Montgomery Highlanders in 1757. He was in the expedition against Fort Duquesne in 1758, and in 1760 was governor of East Florida. He led an expedition against the Cherokees in May, 1761, was acting brigadier-general in the battle of Long Island in 1776, and was made major-general in 1777. He was with Howe in New Jersey and Pennsylvania in 1777. He fought the Americans at Monmouth in 1778, and in November sailed in command of troops sent against the French in the West Indies, taking St. Lucia in December. In 1791 he was made governor of Stirling Castle, and was several years in Parliament. It is said that he was such a notorious gourmand in his later life that he required his cook to sleep in the same room with him. He died April 13, 1806.

Grant, ROBERT, author; born in Boston, Mass., Jan. 24, 1852; graduated at Harvard College in 1873; later began law practice in his native city. He is the author of *Yankee Doodle; The Oldest School in America,* etc.

Grant, Ulysses Simpson, eighteenth President of the United States; named at birth Hiram Ulysses, but, through an error when he entered the Military Academy, he was given the Christian names which he afterwards adopted; born in Point Pleasant, O., April 27, 1822; graduated at West Point in 1843. He served in the war with Mexico, first under General Taylor, and then under General Scott, taking part in every battle between Vera Cruz and the city of Mexico. He was made captain in 1853, and resigned the next year, when he settled in St. Louis. He was one of the first to offer his services to the national government when the Civil War broke out, but, as no notice was taken of him, became colonel of the 21st Illinois Infantry. In May, 1861, he was appointed a brigadier-general of volunteers, and placed in command at Cairo. He occupied Paducah, broke up the Confederate camp at Belmont, and in February, 1862, captured Forts Henry and Donelson. He was then promoted to major-general; conducted the battle of Pittsburg Landing, or Shiloh, and for a while was second in command to Halleck. He performed excellent service in the West and Southwest, especially in the vicinity of the Mississippi River, and at and near the Tennessee River, in 1863. He was promoted to lieutenant-general March 1, 1864, and awarded a gold medal by Congress. He issued his first order as general-in-chief of the armies of the Unit-



ULYSSES SIMPSON GRANT AS LIEUTENANT IN THE MEXICAN WAR.

ed States at Nashville, March 17, 1864. In the grand movements of the armies in 1864, he accompanied that of the Potomac, with his headquarters "in the field," and he remained with it until he signed the articles of capitulation at Appomattox Court-house, April 9, 1865. In 1866 he was promoted to general of the United States army. After the war Grant fixed his headquarters at Washington. When President Johnson suspended Stanton from the office of Secretary of War, Grant was put in his place *ad interim*. Stanton was reinstated by the Senate, Jan. 14, 1868. In 1868, Grant was elected President of the United States by the Republican party, and was re-elected in 1872. He retired from the office March 4, 1877, and soon afterwards made a journey around the world, receiving great honors everywhere.

Towards the close of his life he was financially ruined by an unprincipled sharper. Congress created him a general on the retired list; and, to make further provision for his family, he began compiling *Personal Memoirs of U. S. Grant*, a work that was completed shortly before his death, on Mount McGregor, N. Y., July 23, 1885. His remains lie in the

BIRTHPLACE OF GENERAL GRANT.

GENERAL ULYSSES S. GRANT

THE GRANT MEDAL.

magnificent mausoleum in Riverside Park, New York City, that cost $500,000, raised principally by popular subscription. See ARMY (*Army in the Civil War; Disbanding of the Union Armies*); LEE, ROBERT EDWARD.

Let Us Have Peace.—On the receipt of the official notification of his first nomination for the Presidency, he addressed to General Hawley the following letter, concluding with one of those brief phrases for which this "silent man" was noted:

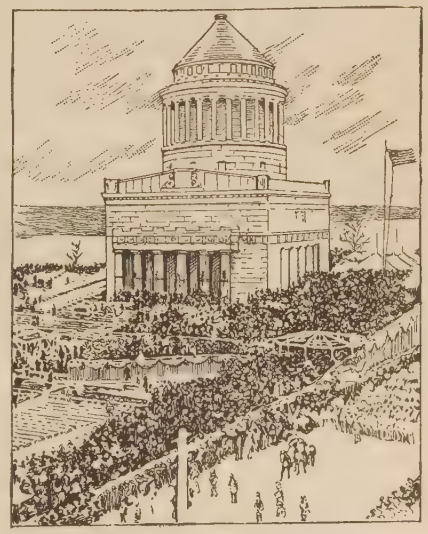
WASHINGTON, D. C., *May 29, 1868.*

To Gen. Joseph R. Hawley, President National Republican Convention:

In formally accepting the nomination of the "National Union Republican Convention" of the 21st of May last, it seems proper that some statement of views, beyond the mere acceptance of the nomination, should be expressed.

The proceedings of the convention were marked with wisdom, moderation, and patriotism, and, I believe, expressed the feelings of the great mass of those who sustained the country through its recent trials. I endorse their resolutions.

If elected to the office of President of the United States, it will be my endeavor to administer all the laws in good faith, with economy, and with the view of giving peace, quiet, and protection everywhere. In times like the present, it is impossible, or at least eminently improper, to lay down a policy to be adhered to, right or wrong. Through an administration of four years, new political issues, not foreseen, are constantly arising, the views of the public on old ones are constantly changing, and a purely administrative officer should always be left free to execute the will of the people. I always have respected that will, and always shall. Peace and universal prosperity, its sequence, with economy of administration, will lighten the burden of



TOMB OF GENERAL GRANT.

taxation, while it constantly reduces the national debt. Let us have peace.

With great respect, your obedient servant,

U. S. GRANT.

The following is General Grant's address at his first inaugural March 4, 1869:

Citizens of the United States,—Your suffrages having elected me to the office of President of the United States, I have, in conformity with the Constitution of our country, taken the oath of office prescribed therein. I have taken this oath without mental reservation, and with the determination to do to the best of my ability all that it requires of me. The responsibilities of the position I feel, but accept them without fear. The office has come to me unsought. I commence its duties untrammelled. I bring to it a conscientious desire and determination to fill it to the best of my ability to the satisfaction of the people.

On all leading questions agitating the public mind, I will always express my views to Congress, and urge them according to my judgment; and, when I think it advisable, will exercise the constitutional privilege of interposing a veto to defeat measures which I oppose. But all laws will be faithfully executed whether they meet my approval or not.

THE HOUSE IN WHICH GENERAL GRANT DIED, MOUNT McGREGOR, NEW YORK.

I shall, on all subjects, have a policy to recommend, but none to enforce against the will of the people. Laws are to govern all alike, those opposed as well as those who favor them. I know no method to secure the repeal of bad or obnoxious laws so effective as their stringent execution.

The country having just emerged from

a great rebellion, many questions will come before it for settlement in the next four years, which preceding administrations have never had to deal with. In meeting these, it is desirable that they should be approached calmly, without prejudice, hate, or sectional pride, remembering that the greatest good to the greatest number is the object to be attained.

This requires security of person, property, and for religious and political opinions, in every part of our common country, without regard to local prejudice. All laws to secure these ends will receive my best efforts for their enforcement.

A great debt has been contracted in securing to us and our posterity the Union; the payment of this, principal and interest, as well as the return to a specie basis, as soon as it can be accomplished without material detriment to the debtor class or to the country at large, must be provided for. To protect the national honor, every dollar of government indebtedness should be paid in gold unless otherwise expressly stipulated in the contract. Let it be understood that no repudiator of one farthing of our public debt will be trusted in public place, and it will go far towards strengthening a credit which ought to be the best in the world, and will ultimately enable us to replace the debt with bonds bearing less interest than we now pay. To this should be added a faithful collection of the revenue, a strict accountability to the treasury for every dollar collected, and the greatest practicable retrenchment in expenditure in every department of government.

When we compare the paying capacity of the country now with the ten States in poverty from the effects of war, but soon to emerge, I trust, into greater prosperity than ever before, with its paying capacity twenty-five years ago, and calculate what it probably will be twenty-five years hence, who can doubt the feasibility of paying every dollar then with more ease than we now pay for useless luxuries? Why, it looks as though Providence had bestowed upon us a strong box in the precious metals locked up in the sterile mountains of the far West, of which we are now forging the key to unlock to meet the very contingency that is now upon us.

Ultimately it may be necessary to insure the facilities to reach these riches, and it may be necessary also that the general government should give its aid to secure this access. But that should only be when a dollar of obligation to pay secures precisely the same sort of dollar to use now, and not before. While the question of specie payments is in abeyance, the prudent business man is careful about contracting debts payable in the distant future. The nation should follow the same rule. A prostrate commerce is to be rebuilt and all industries encouraged.

The young men of the country, those who from their age must be its rulers twenty-five years hence, have a peculiar interest in maintaining the national honor. A moment's reflection as to what will be our commanding influence among the nations of the earth in their day, if they are only true to themselves, should inspire them with national pride. All divisions, geographical, political, and religious, can join in this common sentiment. How the public debt is to be paid, or specie payments resumed, is not so important as that a plan should be adopted and acquiesced in.

A united determination to do is worth more than divided counsels upon the method of doing. Legislation upon this subject may not be necessary now, nor even advisable, but it will be when the civil law is more fully restored in all parts of the country, and trade resumes its wonted channels.

It will be my endeavor to execute all laws in good faith, to collect all revenues assessed, and to have them properly accounted for and economically disbursed. I will, to the best of my ability, appoint to office those only who will carry out this design.

In regard to foreign policy, I would deal with nations as equitable law requires individuals to deal with each other, and I would protect the law-abiding citizen, whether of native or foreign birth, wherever his rights are jeopardized or the flag of our country floats. I would respect the rights of all nations, demanding equal respect for our own. If others depart

from this rule in their dealings with us, we may be compelled to follow their precedent.

The proper treatment of the original occupants of this land, the Indians, is one deserving of careful study. I will favor any course towards them which tends to their civilization and ultimate citizenship.

The question of suffrage is one which is likely to agitate the public so long as a portion of the citizens of the nation are excluded from its privileges in any State. It seems to me very desirable that this question should be settled now, and I entertain the hope and express the desire that it may be by the ratification of the fifteenth article of amendment to the Constitution.

In conclusion, I ask patient forbearance one towards another throughout the land, and a determined effort on the part of every citizen to do his share towards cementing a happy Union; and I ask the prayers of the nation to Almighty God in behalf of this consummation.

Last Message to Congress.—The following is the opening of his last message to Congress (Dec. 5, 1876), the part in which he reviews the events of his double term of office:

To the Senate and House of Representatives,—In submitting my eighth and last annual message to Congress, it seems proper that I should refer to, and in some degree recapitulate, the events and official acts of the past eight years.

It was my fortune, or misfortune, to be called to the office of chief executive without any previous political training. From the age of seventeen I had never even witnessed the excitement attending a Presidential campaign but twice antecedent to my own candidacy, and at but one of them was I eligible as a voter.

Under such circumstances it is but reasonable to suppose that errors of judgment must have occurred. Even had they not, differences of opinion between the executive, bound by an oath to the strict performance of his duties, and writers and debaters, must have arisen. It is not necessarily evidence of blunder on the part of the executive because there are these differences of views. Mistakes have been made, as all can see and I admit, but it seems to me oftener in the selections made of the assistants appointed to aid in carrying out the various duties of administering the government, in nearly every case selected without a personal acquaintance with the appointee, but upon recommendations of the representatives chosen directly by the people. It is impossible, where so many trusts are to be allotted, that the right parties should be chosen in every instance. History shows that no administration, from the time of Washington to the present, has been free from these mistakes. But I leave comparisons to history, claiming that I have acted in every instance from a conscientious desire to do what was right, constitutional within the law, and for the very best interests of the whole people. Failures have been errors of judgment, not of intent.

My civil career commenced, too, at a most critical and difficult time. Less than four years before the country had emerged from a conflict such as no other nation had ever survived. Nearly one-half of the States had revolted against the government; and, of those remaining faithful to the Union, a large percentage of the population sympathized with the rebellion and made an "enemy in the rear," almost as dangerous as the more honorable enemy in the front. The latter committed errors of judgment, but they maintained them openly and courageously; the former received the protection of the government they would see destroyed, and reaped all the pecuniary advantage to be gained out of the then existing state of affairs.

Immediately on the cessation of hostilities, the then noble President, who had carried the country so far through its perils, fell a martyr to his patriotism at the hands of an assassin.

The intervening time to my first inauguration was filled up with wranglings between Congress and the new executive as to the best mode of "reconstruction," or, to speak plainly, as to whether the control of the government should be thrown immediately into the hands of those who had so recently and persistently tried to destroy it, or whether the victors should continue to have an equal voice with them in this control. Reconstruction, as finally agreed upon, means this and only this, except that the late slave was en-

franchised, giving an increase, as was supposed, to the Union-loving and Union-supporting votes. If *free*, in the full sense of the word, they would not disappoint this expectation. Hence, at the beginning of my first administration the work of reconstruction—much embarrassed by the long delay—virtually commenced. It was the work of the legislative branch of the government. My province was wholly in approving their acts, which I did most heartily, urging the legislatures of States that had not yet done so to ratify the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution. The country was laboring under an enormous debt, contracted in the suppression of rebellion, and taxation was so oppressive as to discourage production. Another danger also threatened us—a foreign war. The last difficulty had to be adjusted, and was adjusted without a war, and in a manner highly honorable to all parties concerned. Taxes have been reduced within the last seven years nearly $300,000,000, and the national debt has been reduced in the same time over $435,000,000. By refunding the 6 per cent. bonded debt for bonds bearing 5 and 4½ per cent. interest, respectively, the annual interest has been reduced from over $130,000,000 in 1869 to but little over $100,000,000 in 1876. The balance of trade has been changed from over $130,000,000 against the United States in 1869 to more than $120,000,000 in our favor in 1876.

Opening the Centennial Exhibition.—On May 10, 1876, he formally opened the Centennial Exhibition in Philadelphia with the following speech:

My Countrymen,—It has been thought appropriate, upon this centennial occasion, to bring together in Philadelphia, for popular inspection, specimens of our attainments in the industrial and fine arts, and in literature, science, and philosophy, as well as in the great business of agriculture and of commerce.

That we may the more thoroughly appreciate the excellences and deficiencies of our achievements, and also give emphatic expression to our earnest desire to cultivate the friendship of our fellow-members of this great family of nations, the enlightened agricultural, commercial, and manufacturing people of the world have been invited to send hither corresponding specimens of their skill to exhibit on equal terms in friendly competition with our own. To this invitation they have generously responded; for so doing we tender them our hearty thanks. The beauty and utility of the contributions will this day be submitted to your inspection by the managers of this exhibition. We are glad to know that a view of specimens of the skill of all nations will afford you unalloyed pleasure, as well as yield to you a valuable practical knowledge of so many of the remarkable results of the wonderful skill existing in enlightened communities.

One hundred years ago our country was new and but partially settled. Our necessities have compelled us to chiefly expend our means and time in felling forests, subduing prairies, building dwellings, factories, ships, docks, warehouses, roads, canals, machinery, etc., etc. Most of our schools, churches, libraries, and asylums have been established within a hundred years. Burdened by these great primal works of necessity, which could not be delayed, we yet have done what this exhibition will show, in the direction of rivalling older and more advanced nations in law, medicine, and theology; in science, literature, philosophy and the fine arts. While proud of what we have done, we regret that we have not done more. Our achievements have been great enough, however, to make it easy for our people to acknowledge superior merit wherever found.

And now, fellow-citizens, I hope a careful examination of what is about to be exhibited to you will not only inspire you with a profound respect for the skill and taste of our friends from other nations, but also satisfy you with the attainments made by our own people during the past 100 years. I invoke your generous co-operation with the worthy commissioners to secure a brilliant success to this international exhibition, and to make the stay of our foreign visitors—to whom we extend a hearty welcome—both profitable and pleasant to them.

I declare the international exhibition now open.

Vindication of Fitz-John Porter.—General Grant's magnanimity was never more

touchingly illustrated than in his efforts to secure justice for Gen. Fitz-John Porter (*q. v.*). The story of his actions in this matter is most fittingly told in his own language. On Dec. 22, 1881, he addressed the following appeal in behalf of General Porter to the President:

New York, *Dec. 22, 1881.*

The President, Washington, D. C.:

Dear Sir, — At the request of Gen. Fitz-John Porter, I have recently reviewed his trial and the testimony furnished before the Schofield Court of Inquiry held in 1879, giving to the subject three full days of careful reading and consideration, and much thought in the intervening time. The reading of this record has thoroughly convinced me that for these nineteen years I have been doing a gallant and efficient soldier a very great injustice in thought and sometimes in speech. I feel it incumbent upon me now to do whatever lies in my power to remove from him and from his family the stain upon his good name. I feel this the more incumbent upon me than I should if I had been a corps commander only, or occupying any other command in the army than the one which I did; but as general I had it, possibly, in my power to have obtained for him the hearing which he had only got at a later day, and as President I certainly had the power to have ordered that hearing. In justification for my injustice to General Porter, I can only state that shortly after the war closed his defence was brought to my attention, but I read in connection with it a sketch of the field where his offences were said to have been committed, which I now see, since perfect maps have been made by the engineers' department of the whole field, were totally incorrect as showing the position of the two armies. I have read it in connection with the statements made on the other side against General Porter, and, I am afraid, possibly with some little prejudice in the case, although General Porter was a man whom I personally knew and liked before; but I got the impression, with many others, that there was a half-hearted support of General Pope in his campaigns, and that General Porter, while possibly not more guilty than others, happened to be placed in a position where he could be made responsible for his indifference, and that the punishment was not a severe one for such an offence. I am now convinced that he rendered faithful, efficient, and intelligent service, and the fact that he was retained in command of a corps for months after his offences were said to have been committed is in his favor. What I would ask in General Porter's behalf, from you, is, if you can possibly give the time, that you give the subject the same study and thought that I have given it, and then act as your judgment shall dictate. But, feeling that you will not have the time for such an investigation (for it would take several days' time), I would ask that the whole matter be laid before the Attorney-General for his examination and opinion. Hoping that you will be able to do this much for an officer who has suffered for nineteen years a punishment that never should be inflicted upon any but the most guilty, I am,

Very truly yours, U. S. Grant.

On Feb. 4, 1882, in order to still further impress his convictions of General Porter's innocence upon influential members of Congress, he addressed the following detailed letter to J. Donald Cameron, United States Senator from Pennsylvania:

New York, *Feb. 4, 1882.*

Hon. J. D. Cameron, U. S. Senate, Washington, D. C.:

Dear Sir,—It has been my intention until within the last few days to visit Washington this winter to spend some time, and there to have a conversation with you and with General Logan on the subject of the Fitz-John Porter case; but having now pretty nearly decided not to go to Washington, I have determined to write, and write to you so that you may state my position to your friends, and particularly to General Logan, and, if you choose, show this letter to any such people.

When I commenced the examination of the Fitz-John Porter case as it now stands, it was with the conviction that his sentence was a just one, and that his punishment had been light for so hideous an offence; but I tried to throw off all prejudice in the case, and to examine it

on its merits. I came out of that examination with the firm conviction that an entirely innocent man had been most unjustly punished. I cast no censure upon the court which tried him, because the evidence which now proves his entire innocence of disobedience of orders it was impossible to have before that court.

When I completed the investigation and came to the conclusion that I did—of his innocence—my first thought was to write to General Logan, because I regard him as my friend, and I am sure I am his, and he has made, probably, the ablest speech of his life in opposition to the bill for General Porter's restoration to the army. I thought, therefore, it was due to him that I should inform him of the conclusion that I had come to after the investigation. But as the President was just about visiting this city when my letter to him was written, and it was desired to present it to him here, I requested, in lieu of a letter to General Logan, to have a copy of my letter to the President sent to him. This was done.

You are aware that when General Logan made his speech against General Porter, it was in opposition to a bill pending in Congress. He, like myself, was thoroughly convinced of the guilt of General Porter, and was therefore opposed to the bill. His investigations therefore were necessarily to find arguments to sustain his side of a pending question. I of course had no knowledge of the papers he would refer to, or would examine, to find such arguments; but I knew that he could have the testimony which was taken before the court-martial which convicted; probably also the arguments of the officer who acted as prosecutor when the case was before the Schofield court, and arguments that have been made by lawyers, J. D. Cox and others possibly, all of which were in opposition to General Porter as much as that of paid attorneys in cases before the civil courts.

But my investigation of all the facts that I could bring before me of the occurrence from the 27th of August, 1862, and for some little time prior, to the 1st of September, the same year, show conclusively that the court and some of the witnesses entirely misapprehended the position of the enemy on that day.

General Porter was convicted of disobedience of the order of General Pope's, dated at 4.30 P.M., on the 29th of August, to attack the enemy on his right flank, and in his rear, if possible. Despatches of General Pope of that day show that he knew General Lee was coming to the support of Jackson, whom he thought commanded the only force in his front at that time; but that he could not arrive until the evening of the following day, or the morning of the day after. It was sworn to before the court that this order of 4.30 P.M. reached General Porter at about five or half-past five in the afternoon, but it must be recollected that this testimony was given from memory, and unquestionably without any idea at the time of the occurrence that they were ever to be called upon to give any testimony in the case.

Investigation shows a despatch from General Porter, dated six o'clock of that afternoon, which makes no mention of having received the order to attack, and it is such a despatch as could not be written without mentioning the receipt of that order, if it had been received. There is other testimony that makes it entirely satisfactory to my mind that the order was not received until about sundown, or between sundown and dark. It was given, as stated before, to attack the enemy's right, and, if possible, to get into his rear. This was on the supposition that Jackson was there alone, as General Pope had stated he would be until the evening of the next day, or the morning of the day following. I believe that the court was convinced that on the evening of the 29th of August Jackson, with his force, was there alone; but now it is proved by testimony better than sworn evidence of any persons on the Union side that by 11 o'clock A.M., of the 29th, Longstreet was up and to the right of Jackson with a force much greater than General Porter's entire force. The attack upon Jackson's right and rear was, therefore, impossible, without first wiping out the force of Longstreet. The order did not contemplate, either, a night attack, and, to have obeyed it, even if Longstreet had not been there, General Porter would have been obliged to make a night attack. But, even as it was, I find that General Porter, notwithstanding the late hour, did

all he could to obey that order. He had previously given a command to General Morell, who commanded the most advanced division, or one most fronting the enemy, to throw out a skirmish line to engage the enemy, or to keep him occupied, and on the receipt of this order, although at this late hour, he immediately sent orders to General Morell to increase it from a skirmish line to a large force, and that he would be with him as soon as he could get there.

He did actually go to the front, although it was dark, to superintend this movement, and as far as possible to prevent the enemy detaching anything from his front, thus showing a desire to obey the order strictly and to the best of his ability. I find the Schofield board acquit him entirely, but throw some censure upon him for having expressed a lack of confidence in his commanding officer. Such conduct might be censured, although if every man in the army had been punished who had expressed lack of confidence in his superior officer many of our best soldiers would have been punished. But, in fact, if this was not stated in the summing up of the case by the board, I should not have found that he had expressed any such lack of confidence. On the contrary, to my mind now, he was zealous in giving a support to General Pope, and more so, possibly, for the reason that he knew among his former army associates there was a good deal of apprehension, to say the least, of his fitness for his new place. It must be recollected that General Pope was selected from a Western army and brought East to command an army where there were a great many generals who had had experience in a previous war, and who had, like himself, a military education, and there may (improperly) have been a feeling that it was a reflection upon them to go out of their own command to find a suitable commander; and it is also very probable that expression was freely given to that feeling. But it would be well to reflect what would have been the sentiment in the West if an officer from the Eastern army had been sent out to supersede all of them and to command them, and whether or not there might have not been some harsh criticisms, even by men who proved to be among our most gallant and devoted commanders. Then, too, in re-examining the case, my attention was called again to General Pope's early order in taking command of the Army of Virginia. I send you a copy of this order. You will see that it was calculated to make the army to whom it was addressed feel that it was a reflection upon their former services and former commanders, from that of a company to the commander of the whole, and that even as amiable people as General Logan and myself are would have been very apt to have made some very uncomplimentary remarks if they had been addressed by an Eastern officer sent West to command over us in our field of duty. I commenced reading up this case with the conviction that General Porter had been guilty, as found by the court, but came out of the investigation with a thorough conviction that I, and the public generally, had done him a fearful injustice, and entirely satisfied that any intelligent man, or lawyer, who will throw aside prejudice and examine the case as I have done, will come to the same conclusion.

As stated in my letter to the President, I feel it incumbent upon me, in view of the positions that I have held heretofore, and my failure then to do what I now wish I had done, to do all in my power to place General Porter right before the public and in future history, and to repair my own intentional injustice.

I address this letter to you, knowing that you will have a desire to do just what your judgment dictates as being right in the matter, and that you will state to whomsoever it may seem to you proper and necessary my present convictions upon this case.

Very truly yours, U. S. GRANT.

Perhaps no person unconnected with the army contributed in so great a degree to General Grant's success in the Civil War as the Hon. Elihu B. Washburne, to whom the following extremely interesting letter was addressed. It is certainly of great historical value, and reveals in a very interesting way some of the strongest and most admirable traits of General Grant's character. Mr. Washburne (1816–87) was the member of Congress from Galena, Ill., where Grant was employed at the beginning of the war. The two men first

met at that time; they immediately became friends, and during the great struggle Washburne was the constant supporter and sturdy defender of the Silent Commander, who would never defend himself from the shameful charges that were frequently made against his private character, and also as a soldier. When Grant became President he appointed Mr. Washburne his Secretary of State, but after occupying that high office for a few weeks, he was sent as the American representative to France. He filled that position with pre-eminent ability and signal distinction, publishing after his return to the United States a valuable and interesting work, in 2 octavo volumes, entitled *Recollections of a Minister to France*, 1869–1877:

La Grange, Tenn., *Nov. 7, 1862.*

Not having much of special note to write you since your visit to Jackson, and knowing that you were fully engaged, I have not troubled you with a letter. I write now a little on selfish grounds.

I see from the papers that Mr. —— is to be called near the President in some capacity. I believe him to be one of my bitterest enemies. The grounds of his enmity I suppose to be the course I pursued while at Cairo towards certain contractors and speculators who wished to make fortunes off of the soldiers and government, and in which he took much interest, whether a partner or not. He called on me in regard to the rights of a post sutler for Cairo (an appointment not known to the law) whom he had got appointed. Finding that I would regard him in the light of any other merchant who might set up there, that I would neither secure him a monopoly of the trade nor his pay at the pay-table for such as he might trust out, the sutler never made his appearance. If he did he never made himself known to me.

In the case of some contracts that were given out for the supply of forage, they were given, if not to the very highest bidder, to far from the lowest, and full 30 per cent. higher than the articles could have been bought for at that time. Learning these facts, I immediately annulled the contracts.

Quite a number of car-loads of grain and hay were brought to Cairo on these contracts, and a change of quartermaster having taken place in the mean time the new quartermaster would not receive them without my order, except at rates he could then get the same articles for from other parties. This I refused to give. The contractors then called on me, and tried to convince me that the obligation was binding, but finding me immovable in the matter, asked if General Allen's approval to the contract would not be sufficient. My reply was, in substance, that General Allen was chief quartermaster of the department, and I could not control him. They immediately left me, and, thinking over the matter, it occurred to me that they would go immediately to St. Louis and present their contract for approval without mentioning the objection I made to it. I then telegraphed to General Allen the facts, and put him on his guard against these men. For some reason, however, my despatch did not reach St. Louis for two days. General Allen then replied to it, stating that those parties had been to him the day before, and knowing no objection to the contract he had approved it.

The parties then returned to Cairo evidently thinking they had gained a great triumph. But there being no money to pay at that time and because of the bad repute the quartermaster's department was in, they were afraid to take vouchers without my approval. They again called on me to secure this. My reply to them was that they had obtained their contract without my consent, had got it approved against my sense of duty to the government, and they might go on and deliver their forage and get their pay in the same way. I would never approve a voucher for them under that contract if they never got a cent. I hoped they would not. This forced them to abandon the contract and to sell the forage already delivered for what it was worth.

Mr. —— took much interest in this matter and wrote me one or more letters on the subject, rather offensive in their manner. These letters I have preserved, but they are locked up in Mr. Safford's safe in Cairo. I afterwards learned from undoubted authority that there was a combination of wealthy and influential citizens formed, at the beginning of this war, for the purpose of

monopolizing the army contracts. One of their boasts was that they had sufficient influence to remove any general who did not please them.

The *modus operandi* for getting contracts at a high rate, I suppose, was for a member of this association to put in bids commencing at as low rates as the articles could be furnished for, and after they were opened all would retire up to the highest one who was below any outside person and let him take it. In many instances probably they could buy off this one for a low figure by assuring him that he could not possibly get the contract, for if he did not retire it would be held by the party below.

Grants for State Colleges. On July 8, 1901, the United States Treasury Department drew warrants aggregating $1,200,000, or $25,000 each, for the State and Territorial agricultural colleges, being the maximum amount provided for by Congress in the act of Aug. 30, 1890, for the endowment and maintenance of colleges for the benefit of agriculture and mechanic arts. This act provided a minimum sum of $15,000 for that year, with an annual increase of $1,000 for ten years up to $25,000. The maximum was reached in 1901, and hereafter each of the States and Territories will receive annually this sum for its agricultural colleges. This money is the proceeds of the sale of public lands.

Grape Island, AFFAIR AT. In Boston Harbor was Grape Island, to which, on Sunday morning, May 21, 1775, some British troops repaired to secure hay; for so closely were they besieged in Boston, that only on the islands in and near the harbor could they procure grass or straw or fresh meat. Three alarm-guns were fired; the drums beat to arms; the bells of neighboring towns were rung; and very soon about 2,000 of the men of that region were flocking to the water's edge. They soon obtained a lighter and a sloop, when many jumped on board, pushed off, and landed on the island. The British fled, and the Americans burned the hay they had gathered.

Grasse-Tilly, FRANÇOIS JOSEPH PAUL, COUNT DE, naval officer; born in Valette, France, in 1723; entered the navy when eleven years old; was conspicuous in the American Revolutionary War; and died in Paris, Jan. 11, 1788.

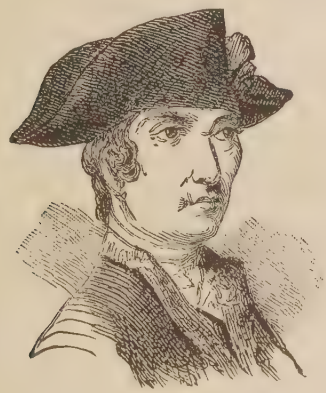
On Aug. 3, 1781, the French fleet, under his command, appeared on the American coast. He had sailed from France, towards the end of March, with twenty-six

ships-of-the-line, followed by an immense convoy of about 250 merchantmen. That convoy he put safely into the harbor of Port Royal, having carefully avoided a close engagement with a part of Rodney's fleet, under Admiral Hood. He engaged with British vessels at long range (April 29), and so injured them that they were obliged to go to Antigua for repairs, and, meanwhile, he accomplished the conquest of Tobago in June. He then proceeded with the fleet of merchantmen to Santo Domingo, and soon afterwards sailed with an immense return convoy, bound for France. After seeing it well on its way, he steered for the Chesapeake, and, despite the activity of British fleets watching for him, he was safe within the capes of Virginia, and at anchor, with twenty-four ships-of-the-line, at the beginning of September. He found an officer of Lafayette's staff at Cape Henry, sent to request him to blockade the York and James rivers, so as to cut off Cornwallis's retreat. This was done by four ships-of-the-line and several frigates; and 3,000 French troops were sent to join Lafayette.

Admiral Rodney supposed part of the French fleet had left the West Indies for America, but did not suppose the whole fleet would take that direction. He thought it only necessary to reinforce Ad-

miral Graves, so he sent Admiral Hood with fourteen ships-of-the-line for the purpose. He reached the Chesapeake (Aug. 25, 1781) before the French. Not finding Graves there, he proceeded to New York, where news had just arrived that the French squadron at Newport had gone to sea, plainly with intent to join the new French fleet. In the hope of cutting off one or the other of the French fleets before the junction could be effected, Graves sailed with the united British fleets, nineteen ships-of-the-line, and was astonished, when he arrived at the capes of Virginia, to find the French anchored within. De Grasse, also surprised at this sudden appearance of a heavy British fleet, ordered his ships to slip their cables and put to sea. For five days the contending vessels manœuvred in sight of each other. De Grasse avoided a close contact, his object being to cover the arrival of the squadron from Newport. So a distant cannonade was kept up. De Barras entered the Chesapeake. Graves finding his vessels badly shattered, returned to New York to refit, leaving the French in undisturbed possession of the bay, and the French transports were then sent to Annapolis to convey to the James River the allied armies.

On April 12, 1782, a fierce naval engagement occurred in the West Indies be-



COUNT DE GRASSE-TILLY.

tween Count de Grasse and Admiral Sir George Rodney. The count's flag-ship was the *Ville de Paris*, the same as when he assisted in the capture of Cornwallis at Yorktown. She was a magnificent vessel, which the city of Paris had presented to the King (Louis XV.). The count fought his antagonist with such desperation that when he was compelled to strike his colors only two men besides himself were left standing on the upper deck. By this defeat and capture there fell into the hands of the English thirty-six chests of money and the whole train of artillery intended

COUNT DE GRASSE'S AUTOGRAPH.

for an attack on Jamaica. The French lost in the engagement, in killed and wounded, about 3,000 men; the British lost 1,100. For more than a century the French had not, in any naval engagement, been so completely beaten.

The family of De Grasse were ruined by the fury of the French Revolution, and four of his daughters (Amelia, Adelaide, Melanie, and Silvia) came to the United States in extreme poverty. Congress, in February, 1795, gave them each $1,000, in consideration "of the extraordinary services rendered the United States in the year 1781 by the late Count de Grasse, at the urgent request of the commander-in-chief of the American forces, beyond the term limited for his co-operation with the troops of the United States."

Grassi, JOHN, clergyman; born in Verona, Italy, Oct. 1, 1778; settled in Maryland as the superior of Jesuit missions in 1810; returned to Italy in 1817. He was the author of *Various Notices of the Present State of the Republic of the United States of America.* He died in Italy, Dec. 12, 1849.

Graves (LORD), THOMAS, was born in 1725. Having served under Anson, Hawke, and others, he was placed in command of the *Antelope*, on the North American station, in 1761, and made governor of Newfoundland. In 1779 he became rear-admiral of the blue, and the next year came to America with reinforcements for Admiral Arbuthnot. On the return of

the latter to England in 1781, Graves became chief naval commander on the American station. He was defeated (Sept. 5) by De Grasse. In 1795 he was second in command under Lord Howe, and was raised to an Irish peerage and admiral of the white on June 1, the same year. He died Jan. 31, 1802.

Graveyard Insurance, the popular designation of a form of life insurance that at one time was extensively carried on in several of the Northern States, especially Pennsylvania. It was an outgrowth of what is known as industrial insurance, in which policies were issued for small amounts from childhood up to extreme old age, the premiums being paid in small and frequent instalments. For a time no medical examination nor personal identification was required from agents, and because of this they added largely to their income by presenting applications to their respective companies in the names of people, long dead, taken from headstones in cemeteries.

Gray, ASA, botanist; born in Paris, N. Y., Nov. 18, 1810; studied botany under Dr. John Torrey, Professor of Natural History at Harvard College in 1842–73; became widely known by his textbooks on botany, which are in general use throughout the United States. He was the author of *Elements of Botany; Structural and Systematic Botany; Manual of the Botany of the Northern United States; Gray's Botanical Text-Book,* and many others. He died in Cambridge, Mass., Jan. 30, 1888.

Gray, ELISHA, electrician; born in Barnesville, O., Aug. 2, 1835; in early life was a blacksmith, carpenter, and boat-builder. Later he went to Oberlin College, where he followed special studies in physical science, supporting himself by working at his trade. In 1867 he invented a self-adjusting telegraph relay, and soon afterwards designed the telegraphic switch and annunciator for hotels, the private telegraph line printer, the telegraphic repeater, etc. In 1872 he organized the Western Electric Manufacturing Company, but in 1874 withdrew from it. In 1876 he claimed to have invented the speaking telephone, but after a memorable litigation that honor was awarded by the courts to Prof. Alexander Graham Bell. In 1893 Professor Gray invented the telautograph, which so far improved the telephone and the telegraph as to transmit the actual handwriting of messages. He established the Gray Electric Company at Highland Park, Ill., and organized the Congress of Electricians, in connection with the World's Columbian Exposition in 1893, and was its chairman. His works include *Experimental Researches in Electro-Harmonic Telegraphy and Telephony;* and *Elementary Talks on Science.* He died in Newtonville, Mass., Jan. 21, 1901.

Gray, GEORGE, patriot; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 26, 1725; became a member of the board of war in 1777, and later was chairman of that body till the conclusion of peace. He wrote the celebrated *Treason Resolutions.* He died near Philadelphia in 1800.

Gray, GEORGE, lawyer; born in New Castle, Del., May 4, 1840; graduated at Princeton College in 1859; studied law at the Harvard Law School, and was admitted to the bar in 1863. In 1879–85 he was attorney-general of Delaware; in 1885–99 United States Senator. In the Presidential campaign of 1896 he was affiliated with the National (gold-standard) Democratic party. In 1898 he was first appointed a member of the ANGLO-AMERICAN COMMISSION (*q. v.*), and soon afterwards one of the commissioners to negotiate peace between the United States and Spain. On Oct. 17, 1900, he was appointed one of the American members of The Hague Arbitration Commission; and in 1902, a member of the Coal-Strike Commission; and judge of the U. S. Circuit Court since 1899. He is popular as an arbitrator in labor troubles.

Gray, HENRY PETERS, artist; born in New York City, June 23, 1819; established a studio in New York in 1869. His works include *Wages of War; The Birth of our Flag;* etc. He died in New York City, Nov. 2, 1877.

Gray, HORACE, jurist; born in Boston, Mass., March 24, 1828; graduated at Harvard in 1845; justice of the United States Supreme Court in 1882. He died in Nahant, Mass., Sept. 15, 1902.

Gray, ROBERT, explorer; born in Tiverton, R. I., in 1755; was captain of the *Washington,* which was sent in 1787 to

the northwest coast to trade with the Indians by a number of Boston merchants. In 1790 he returned by way of the Pacific Ocean on board the *Columbia*, which vessel had accompanied the *Washington*, and was thus the first to sail around the world under the American flag. Later he made a second trip to the Northwest, and on May 11, 1791, discovered the mouth of the great river, which he named Columbia. He died in Charleston, S. C., in 1806.

Graydon, ALEXANDER, author; born in Bristol, Pa., April 10, 1752; studied law; entered the Continental army in 1775; was captured in the engagement on Harlem Heights and imprisoned in New York, and later in Flatbush; was paroled and in 1778 exchanged. He was the author of *Memoirs of a Life, chiefly passed in Pennsylvania, within the Last Sixty Years, with Occasional Remarks upon the General Occurrences, Character, and Spirit of that Eventful Period.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., May 2, 1818.

Graydon, WILLIAM, lawyer; born near Bristol, Pa., Sept. 4, 1759; brother of Alexander Graydon; studied law; removed to Pittsburg, where he began practice. In 1794–95 he was a prominent leader in the "Mill-dam troubles." He published a *Digest of the Laws of the United States; Forms of Conveyancing and of Practice in the Various Courts and Public Offices*, etc. He died in Harrisburg, Pa., Oct. 13, 1840.

Grayson, WILLIAM JOHN, lawyer; born in Beaufort, S. C., Nov. 10, 1788; graduated at the College of Charleston in 1809; began law practice at Beaufort; member of Congress in 1833–37; was opposed to the Civil War. He was the author of *The Hireling and Slave; The Country* (a poem); *The Life of James Lewis Petigru*, etc. He died in Newberry, Oct. 4, 1863.

Great Bridge, BATTLE AT THE. On the invasion of the Elizabeth River by Lord Dunmore (November, 1775), Colonel Woodford called the militia to arms. Dunmore fortified a passage of the Elizabeth River, on the borders of the Dismal Swamp, where he suspected the militia would attempt to cross. It was known as the Great Bridge. There he cast up intrenchments, at the Norfolk end of the bridge, and amply supplied them with cannon. These were garrisoned by British regulars, Virginia Tories, negroes, and vagrants, in number about 600. Woodford constructed a small fortification at the opposite end of the bridge. On Saturday morning, Dec. 9, Captains Leslie and Fordyce, sent by Dunmore, attacked the Virginians. After considerable manœuvring and skirmishing, a sharp battle ensued, lasting about twenty-five minutes, when the assailants were repulsed and fled, leaving two spiked field-pieces behind them. The loss of the assailants was fifty-five killed and wounded. Not a Virginian was killed, and only one man was slightly wounded in the battle.

GREAT BRIDGE.

Great Britain. Although this name was applied by the French at a very early period to distinguish it from "Little Britain," the name of the western peninsular

projection of France, called by the Romans Amorica, it was seldom used on that island until the accession of James I. to the crown of England (1603), when the whole of the island, comprising England, Scotland, and Wales, was united under one sovereign. By the legislative union between England and Scotland in 1707, Great Britain became the legal title of the kingdom. The official style of the empire is now United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

Great Britain, ARRAIGNMENT OF. See HANCOCK, JOHN.

GREAT CHARTER (MAGNA CHARTA)

Great Charter (MAGNA CHARTA). The corner-stone of personal liberty and civil rights. The basis of the British constitution and the formal beginning of modern constitutional government. See MAGNA CHARTA.

John, the only John who ever sat on the throne of England, and reputed to be one of the most detestable wretches that ever lived, will have his name associated to the end of time with one of the most memorable epochs of history.

In 1207, a few years after John came to the throne, he quarrelled with the pope over the appointment of an archbishop of Canterbury, which at last culminated in the whole country being placed under an interdict, the most terrible form of wholesale excommunication the Roman Catholic Church could impose, and in those times it was dreaded; it is indubitable, however, that personally John deserved all the punishment he received, and no historian has a word of pity for him.

About three years before this time the French provinces had been lost, and the barons, who held estates both in England and Normandy, had been obliged to choose the one or the other, so that the barons who wrested from John the great charter were English barons, and some of them were smarting over the loss of their continental possessions.

As the barons found that every promise that had been made at his coronation had been broken, and that nothing but force had any effect, they determined to bring the matter to a climax, and took up arms against the King.

The clergy, though John was the vassal of the pope, and specially under his protection, ranged themselves mostly on the side of the barons, and the freemen, many of whom had had their goods seized illegally, and some had suffered in person, were also on the same side. Stephen Langton, the Archbishop of Canterbury, supported the barons and the people, and when it was seen that nothing but force would do, the barons set out, and gathering men as they went, came up with the King at the historic Runnymede, near Windsor, and he, seeing their forces, was constrained on June 15, 1215, to sign the great charter, the text of which is as follows:

MAGNA CHARTA

John, by the grace of God, King of England, Lord of Ireland, Duke of Normandy and Aquitaine, and Count of Anjou; to all archbishops, bishops, abbots, priors, earls, barons, sheriffs, officers, and to all bailiffs and other his faithful subjects, greeting.

Know ye, that we, in the presence of God, and for the health of our soul, and the souls of our ancestors and heirs, and to the honour of God and the exaltation of Holy Church, and amendment of our kingdom; by advice of our venerable fathers, Stephen archbishop of Canterbury, primate of all England, and cardinal of the Holy Roman Church; Henry archbishop of Dublin, William bishop of London, Peter of Winchester, Jocelin of Bath and Glastonbury, Hugh of Lincoln, Walter of Worcester, William of Coventry, Benedict of Rochester, bishops; and Master Pandulph the pope's sub-deacon and familiar, Brother Aymerick master of the Knights Templars in England, and the noble persons, William the marshal, earl of Pembroke, William earl of Salisbury, William earl of Warren, William earl of Arundel, Alan de Galloway, constable of Scotland, Warin Fitzgerald, Peter Fitz-Herbert, and Hubert de Burgh, seneschal of Poictou, Hugo de Nevil, Matthew Fitz-Herbert, Thomas Basset, Alan Basset,

Philip of Albiney, Robert de Ropele, John Marshall, John Fitz-Hugh, and others our liegemen, have in the first place granted to God, and by this our present Charter confirmed for us and our heirs forever.

I. That the Church of England shall be free, and shall have her whole rights, and her liberties inviolable; and I will this to be observed in such a way that it may appear thence, that the freedom of elections, which is reckoned most necessary to the English Church, which we granted, and by our charter confirmed, and obtained the confirmation of it from Pope Innocent III before the discord between us and our barons, was of our own free will. Which charter we shall observe; and we will it to be observed faithfully by our heirs forever.

II. We have also granted to all the freemen of our kingdom, for us and our heirs forever, all the underwritten liberties, to be held and enjoyed by them and their heirs, of us and our heirs. If any of our earls or barons, or others who hold of us in chief by military service, shall die, and at his death his heir shall be of full age, and shall owe a relief, he shall have his inheritance for the ancient relief, viz., the heir or heirs of an earl, a whole earl's estate for one hundred pounds; the heir or heirs of a baron, a whole barony, for one hundred pounds; the heir or heirs of a knight, a whole knight's fee, for one hundred shillings at most; and he who owes less, shall pay less, according to the ancient custom of fees.

III. But if the heir of any such be a minor, and shall be in ward, when he comes of age he shall have his inheritance without relief and without fine.

IV. The guardian of an heir who is a minor, shall not take of the lands of the heir any but reasonable issues, and reasonable customs, and reasonable services, and that without destruction and waste of the men or goods; and if we commit the custody of any such lands to a sheriff, or to any other person who is bound to answer to us for the issues of them, and he shall make destruction or waste on the ward lands, we will take restitution from him, and the lands shall be committed to two legal and discreet men of that fee, who shall answer for the issues to us, or to him to whom we shall assign them; and if we grant or sell to any one the custody of any such lands, and he shall make destruction or waste, he shall lose the custody; which shall be committed to two legal and discreet men of that fee, who shall answer to us, in like manner as aforesaid.

V. Besides, the guardian, so long as he hath the custody of the lands, shall keep in order the houses, parks, warrens, ponds, mills, and other things belonging to them, out of their issues; and shall deliver to the heir, when he is full age, his whole lands, provided with ploughs and other implements of husbandry, according to what the season requires, and the issues of the lands can reasonably bear.

VI. Heirs shall be married without disparagement, and so that, before the marriage is contracted, notice shall be given to the relations of the heir by consanguinity.

VII. A widow, after the death of her husband, shall immediately, and without difficulty, have her marriage goods and her inheritance; nor shall she give anything for her dower, or her marriage goods, or her inheritance, which her husband and she held at the day of his death. And she may remain in the mansion house of her husband forty days after his death; within which time her dower shall be assigned, if it has not been assigned before, or unless the house shall be a castle, and if she leaves the castle, there shall forthwith be provided for her a suitable house, in which she may properly dwell, until her dower be to her assigned, as said above; and in the mean time she shall have her reasonable estover from the common income. And there shall be assigned to her for her dower the third part of all the lands, which were her husband's in his lifetime, unless a smaller amount was settled at the church door.

VIII. No widow shall be distrained to marry herself so long as she has a mind to live without a husband. But yet she shall give security that she will not marry without our assent, if she holds of us; or without the consent of the lord of whom she holds, if she holds of another.

IX. Neither we nor our bailiffs shall seize any land or rent for any debt, so long as the chattels of the debtor are sufficient to pay the debt, and the debtor

is prepared to give satisfaction. Nor shall the sureties of the debtor be distrained, so long as the principal debtor be sufficient for the payment of the debt. And if the principal debtor fail in the payment of the debt, not having wherewithal to discharge it, or will not discharge it when he is able, then the sureties shall answer the debt, and if they will they shall have the lands and rents of the debtor, until they shall be satisfied for the debt which they paid for him; unless the principal debtor can show himself acquitted thereof against the said sureties.

X. If any one have borrowed anything of the Jews,* more or less, and dies before the debt is satisfied, there shall be no interest paid for that debt, so long as the heir is a minor, of whomsoever he may hold: and if the debt falls into our hands, we will take only the chattel mentioned in the deed.

XI. If any one shall die indebted to Jews, his wife shall have her dower, and pay nothing of that debt; and if the deceased left children under age, they shall have necessaries provided for them according to the tenement of the deceased, and out of the residue the debt shall be paid; saving however the service of the lords. In like manner the debts due to other persons than Jews shall be paid.

XII. No scutage or aid shall be imposed in our kingdom, unless by the common council of our kingdom, except to ransom our person, and to make our eldest son a knight, and once to marry our eldest daughter; and for these there shall only be paid a reasonable aid.

XIII. In like manner it shall be concerning the aids of the City of London; the City of London shall have all its ancient liberties and free customs, as well by land as by water. Furthermore we will and grant that all other cities and boroughs, and towns and ports shall have all their liberties and free customs.

XIV. And for holding the common council of the kingdom concerning the assessment of aids, otherwise than in the three aforesaid cases, and for the assessment of scutages, we will cause to be summoned the archbishops, bishops, earls, and greater barons, singly, by our letters; and besides, we will cause to be summoned generally by our sheriffs and bailiffs, all those who hold of us in chief, for a certain day, that is to say, forty days before their meeting at least, and to a certain place; and in all the letters of summons, we will declare the cause of the summons; and the summons being thus made, the business shall go on at the day appointed, according to the advice of those who shall be present, although all who had been summoned have not come.

XV. We will not authorize any one, for the future, to take an aid of his freemen, except to ransom his body, to make his eldest son a knight, and once to marry his eldest daughter; and for these only a reasonable aid.

XVI. No one shall be distrained to do more service for a knight's fee, nor for any other free tenement, than what is due from thence.

XVII. Common pleas shall not follow our court, but shall be held in some certain place.

XVIII. Assizes upon the writs of Novel Disseisin, Mort d'Ancestre and Darrein presentment,* shall not be taken but in their proper counties, and in this manner. —We, or our chief justiciary when we are out of the kingdom, shall send two justiciaries into each county four times a year, who, with four knights chosen out of every shire by the people, shall hold the said assizes at a stated time and place, within the county.

XIX. And if any matters cannot be determined on the day appointed for holding the assizes in each county, let as many knights and freeholders of those who were present remain behind, as may be necessary to decide them, according as there is more or less business.

XX. A freeman shall not be amerced for a small offence, but only according to the degree of the offence; and for a great crime, according to the heinousness of it, saving to him his **contenement**; and after the same manner a merchant, saving to him his merchandise; and a villein shall be amerced after the same manner, saving to him his wainage, if he falls under our

* Christians in those days were forbidden by the canon law to lend on usury; the whole of the money-lending was therefore in the hands of the Jews.

* Last presentation to a benefice.—*Sheldon Amos.*

mercy; and none of the aforesaid amerciaments shall be assessed but by the oath of honest men in the neighbourhood.

XXI. Earls and barons shall not be amerced but by their peers, and according to the degree of the offence.

XXII. No ecclesiastical person shall be amerced for his lay-tenement, but according to the proportion of the others aforesaid, and not according to the value of his ecclesiastical benefice.

XXIII. Neither a town nor any tenant shall be distrained to make bridges or banks, unless that anciently and of right they are bound to do it. No river for the future shall be imbanked but what was imbanked in the time of King Henry I., our grandfather.

XXIV. No sheriff, constable, coroner, or other our bailiffs, shall hold pleas of the crown.

XXV. All counties, hundreds, wapentakes, and tithings shall stand at the old rents, without any increase, except in our demesne manors.

XXVI. If any one holding of us a lay-fee, dies, and the sheriff or our bailiff show our letters patent of summons for debt which the deceased did owe to us, it shall be lawful for the sheriff or our bailiff to attach and register the chattels of the deceased found upon his lay-fee, to the value of the debt, by the view of lawful men, so as nothing be removed until our whole debt be paid; and the rest shall be left to the executors to fulfil the will of the deceased; and if there be nothing due from him to us, all the chattels shall remain to the deceased, saving to his wife and children their reasonable shares.

XXVII. If any freeman dies intestate, his chattels shall be distributed by the hands of his nearest relations and friends by view of the church, saving to every one his debts, which the deceased owed.

XXVIII. No constable or bailiff of ours shall take the corn or other chattels of any man, without instantly paying money for them, unless he can obtain respite by the good-will of the seller.

XXIX. No constable shall distrain any knight to give money for castle-guard, if he is willing to perform it in his own person, or by another able man if he cannot perform it himself through a reasonable cause. And if we have carried or sent him into the army, he shall be excused from castle-guard for the time he shall be in the army at our command.

XXX. No sheriff or bailiff of ours or any other person shall take the horses or carts of any freeman to perform carriages, without the assent of the said freeman.

XXXI. Neither we, nor our bailiffs, shall take another man's timber for our castles or other uses, without the consent of the owner of the timber.

XXXII. We will not retain the lands of those who have been convicted of felony above one year and one day, and then they shall be given up to the lord of the fee.

XXXIII. All kydells* for the future shall be removed out of the Thames, the Medway, and throughout all England, except upon the sea-coast.

XXXIV. The writ which is called Præcipe, for the future, shall not be made out to any one concerning any tenement by which any freeman may lose his court.

XXXV. There shall be one measure of wine and one of ale through our whole realm; and one measure of corn, viz., the London quarter; also one breadth of dyed cloth and of russets, and of halberjects,** viz., two ells within the lists. It shall be the same with weights as with measures.

XXXVI. Nothing shall be given or taken for the future for the writ of inquisition of life or limb, but it shall be granted freely, and not denied.

XXXVII. If any one hold of us by fee-farm, or socage, or burgage, and holds lands of another by military service, we shall not have the custody of the heir, or of his land, which is held of the fee of another, through that fee-farm, or socage, or burgage; nor will we have the wardship of the fee-farm, socage, or burgage, unless the fee-farm is bound to perform knight's service to us. We will not have the custody of an heir, nor of any land which he holds of another by military service, by reason of any petit-sergeantry he holds of us, as by the service of paying a knife, an arrow, or such like.

XXXVIII. No bailiff from henceforth shall put any man to his law upon his

* A dam made across a river for diverting water to a mill or taking fish.

** A coarse kind of cloth.

own saying, without credible witnesses to prove it.

XXXIX. No freeman shall be taken, or imprisoned, or disseized, or outlawed, or banished, or any ways destroyed, nor will we pass upon him, nor will we send upon him, unless by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land.

XL. We will sell to no man, we will not deny to any man, either justice or right.

XLI. All merchants shall have safe and secure conduct, to go out of, and to come into England, and to stay there, and to pass as well by land as by water, for buying and selling by the ancient and allowed customs, without any evil tolls; except in time of war, or when they are of any nation at war with us. And if there be found any such in our land in the beginning of the war, they shall be attached, without damage to their bodies or goods, until it be known unto us or our chief justiciary how our merchants be treated in the country at war with us; and if ours be safe there, the others shall be safe in our dominions.

XLII. It shall be lawful for the time to come for any one to go out of our kingdom, and return, safely and securely, by land or by water, saving his allegiance to us; unless in time of war, by some short space, for the common benefit of the realm, except prisoners and outlaws, according to the law of the land, and people in war with us, and merchants who shall be in such condition as is above mentioned.

XLIII. If any man hold of any escheat, as of the honour of Wallingford, Nottingham, Boulogne, Lancaster, or of other escheats which are in our hands, and are baronies, and shall die, his heir shall give no other relief, and perform no other service to us, than he should have done to the baron if it had been in the hands of the baron; and we will hold it in the same manner that the baron held it.

XLIV. Men who dwell without the forest shall not come, for the future, before our justiciary of the forest on a common summons, unless they be parties in a plea, or sureties for some person who is attached for something concerning the forest.

XLV. We will not make any justiciaries, constables, sheriffs, or bailiffs, but from those who understand the law of the realm, and are well-disposed to observe it.

XLVI. All barons who have founded abbeys, which they hold by charters of the kings of England, or by ancient tenure, shall have the custody of them when they become vacant, as they ought to have.

XLVII. All forests which have been made in our time, shall be immediately disforested; and the same shall be done with water banks which have been made in our time.

XLVIII. All evil customs connected with forests and warrens, foresters and warreners, sheriffs and their officers, water-banks and their keepers, shall at once be inquired into in each county by twelve sworn knights of the county who shall be chosen by creditable men of the same county; and within forty days after the inquiry is made, they shall be utterly abolished by them, never to be restored; provided notice be given to us before it is done, or to our justiciary, if we are not in England.

XLIX. We will at once give up all hostages and writings that have been given to us by our English subjects, as securities for their keeping the peace, and faithfully performing their services to us.

L. We will remove absolutely from their bailiwicks the relations of Gerard de Athyes, that henceforth they shall have no bailiwick in England; we will also remove Engelard de Cygony, Andrew, Peter, and Gyon from the Chancery; Gyon de Cygony, Geoffrey de Martyn, and his brothers; Philip Mark, and his brothers; his nephew, Geoffrey, and all their followers.

LI. As soon as peace is restored we will send out of the kingdom all foreign soldiers, crossbow-men, and stipendiaries, who are come with horses and arms, to the injury of our people.

LII. If any one has been dispossessed or deprived by us, without the legal judgment of his peers, of his lands, castles, liberties, or right, we will forthwith restore them to him; and if any dispute arise upon this head, let the matter be decided by the five-and-twenty barons hereafter mentioned, for the preservation of the peace. As for all those things for which any person has, without the legal judgment of his peers, been dispossessed or deprived, either by King Henry our father, or our brother King Richard, and which

we have in our hands, or are possessed by others, and we are bound to warrant and make good, we shall have a respite till the term usually allowed the crusaders; excepting those things about which there is a plea depending, or whereof an inquest hath been made, by our order, before we undertook the crusade, but when we return from our pilgrimage, or if perchance we stay at home and do not make the pilgrimage, we will immediately cause full justice to be administered therein.

LIII. The same respite we shall have, and in the same manner, about administering justice, disafforesting or continuing the forests, which Henry our father and our brother Richard have afforested; and for the wardship of the lands which are in another's fee in the same manner as we have hitherto enjoyed those wardships, by reason of a fee held of us by knight's service; and for the abbeys founded in any other fee than our own, in which the lord of the fee says he has right; and when we return from our pilgrimage, or if we stay at home and do not make the pilgrimage, we will immediately do full justice to all the complainants in this behalf.

LIV. No man shall be taken or imprisoned upon the accusation of a woman, for the death of any other than her husband.

LV. All unjust and illegal fines made by us, and all amerciaments that have been imposed unjustly, or contrary to the law of the land, shall be remitted, or left to the decision of the five-and-twenty barons of whom mention is made below for the security of the peace, or the majority of them, together with the aforesaid Stephen archbishop of Canterbury, if he can be present, and others whom he may think fit to bring with him; and if he cannot be present, the business shall proceed notwithstanding without him; but so, that if one or more of the aforesaid five-and-twenty barons be plaintiffs in the same cause, they must be removed from this particular trial, and others be chosen instead of them out of the said five-and-twenty, and sworn by the rest to decide the matter.

LVI. If we have disseized or dispossessed the Welsh of their lands, or other things, without the legal judgment of their peers, in England or in Wales, they shall be at once restored to them; and if a dispute shall arise about it, the matter shall be determined in the marches by the verdict of their peers; for tenements in England, according to the law of England; for tenements in Wales, according to the law of Wales; for tenements in the marches, according to the law of the marches. The Welsh shall do the same to us and our subjects.

LVII. As for all those things of which any Welshman hath been disseized or deprived, without the legal judgment of his peers, by King Henry our father, or King Richard our brother, and which we have in our hands, or others hold with our warranty, we shall have respite, till the time usually allowed the crusaders, except those concerning which a suit is depending, or an inquisition has been taken by our order before undertaking the crusade. But when we return from our pilgrimage, or if we remain at home without performing the pilgrimage, we shall forthwith do them full justice therein, according to the laws of Wales, and the parts.

LVIII. We will, without delay, dismiss the son of Llewellin, and all the Welsh hostages, and release them from the engagements they have entered into with us for the preservation of the peace.

LIX. We will treat with Alexander, King of Scots, concerning the restoring his sisters and hostages, and his right and liberties, in the same form and manner as we shall do to the rest of our barons of England; unless by the charters which we have from his father, William, late King of Scots, it ought to be otherwise; and this shall be left to the determination of the peers in our court.

LX. All the aforesaid customs and liberties, which we have granted to be holden in our kingdom, as much as it belongs to us, towards our people of our kingdom, both clergy and laity shall observe, as far as they are concerned, towards their dependents.

LXI. And whereas for the honour of God and the amendment of our kingdom, and for the better quieting the strife that has arisen between us and our barons, we have granted all these things aforesaid; willing to render them firm and lasting, we do give and grant our subjects the underwritten security, namely, that the barons may choose five-and-twenty barons of the

kingdom whom they think convenient, who shall take care, with all their might, to hold and observe, and cause to be observed, the peace and liberties we have granted them, and by this our present charter confirmed; so that if we, our justiciary, our bailiffs, or any of our officers, shall in any circumstance fail in the performance of them towards any person, or shall break through any of these articles of peace and security, and the offence be notified to four barons chosen out of the five-and-twenty above mentioned, the said four barons shall repair to us, or our justiciary, if we are out of the kingdom, and laying open the grievance shall petition to have it redressed without delay; and if it not be redressed by us, or if we should chance to be out of the kingdom, if it should not be redressed by our justiciary within forty days, reckoning from the time it has been notified to us, or our justiciary (if we should be out of the kingdom), the four barons aforesaid shall lay the cause before the rest of the five-and-twenty barons; and the said five-and-twenty barons, together with the community of the whole kingdom, shall distrain and distress us in all possible ways, by seizing our castles, lands, possessions, and in any other manner they can, till the grievance is redressed according to their pleasure; saving harmless our own person, and the persons of our queen and children; and when it is redressed they shall obey us as before. And any person whatsoever in the kingdom may swear that he will obey the orders of the five-and-twenty barons aforesaid, in the execution of the premises, and will distress us jointly with them, to the utmost of his power, and we will give public and free liberty to any one that shall please to swear to this, and never will hinder any person from taking the same oath.

LXII. As to all those of our people who of their own accord will not swear to the five-and-twenty barons, to join them in distressing and harassing us, we will issue orders to compel them to swear as aforesaid. And if any one of the five-and-twenty barons die, or remove out of the land, or in any way shall be hindered from executing the things aforesaid, the rest of the five-and-twenty barons shall elect another in his place, at their own free will, who shall be sworn in the same manner as the rest. But in all these things which are appointed to be done by these five-and-twenty barons, if it happens that the whole number have been present, and have differed in their opinions about anything, or if some of those summoned would not or could not be present, that which the majority of those present shall have resolved will be held to be as firm and valid, as if all the five-and-twenty had agreed. And the aforesaid five-and-twenty shall swear that they will faithfully observe, and, to the utmost of their power, cause to be observed, all the things mentioned above. And we will procure nothing from any one by ourselves, or by another, by which any of these concessions and liberties may be revoked or lessened. And if any such thing be obtained, let it be void and null; and we will neither use it by ourselves nor by another. And all the ill-will, indignations, and rancors, that have risen between us and our people, clergy and laity, from the first breaking out of the discord, we do fully remit and forgive; in addition all transgressions occasioned by the said discord from Easter, in the sixteenth year of our reign, till the restoration of peace and tranquillity, we do fully remit to all, both clergy and laity, and as far as lies in our power, forgive. Moreover, we have caused to be made to them letters patent testimonial of my lord Stephen archbishop of Canterbury, my lord Henry archbishop of Dublin, and the bishops aforesaid, as also of Master Pandulph, for the security and concessions aforesaid.

LXIII. Wherefore we will and firmly enjoin that the Church of England be free, and that all men in our kingdom have and hold all the aforesaid liberties, rights, and concessions truly and peaceably, freely and quietly, fully and wholly to themselves and their heirs, of us and our heirs, in all things and places, forever, as is aforesaid. It is also sworn, as well on our part as on the part of the barons, that all the things aforesaid shall be observed *bona fide* and without evil subtlety. Given under our hand, in the presence of the witnesses above named and many others, in the meadow called Runnymede, between Windsor and Staines, the fifteenth day of June, in the seventeenth year of our reign.

Coke points out the evils from which the charter is a protection, in their proper order.

1st. Loss of Liberty.

2d. Loss of Property.

3d. Loss of Citizen Rights.

Creasy remarks that a careful examination of the great charter will show that the following constitutional principles may be found in it, either in express terms or by logical inference:

"The government of the country by a hereditary sovereign ruling with limited powers, and bound to summon and consult a parliament of the whole realm, comprising hereditary peers and elected representatives of the commons.

"That without the sanction of Parliament no tax of any kind can be imposed, and no law can be made, repealed, or altered.

"That no man be arbitrarily fined or imprisoned; that no man's properties or liberties be impaired; and that no man be in any way punished except after a lawful trial.

"Trial by jury.

"That justice shall not be sold or delayed."

Great Eastern, THE. This vessel, in her day, was remarkable as being the

THE GREAT EASTERN.

largest steamship ever built. She was 692 feet in length, and 83 feet in breadth. 28 feet in draught, and of 24,000 tons measurement. At 30 feet draught she displaced 27,000 tons—an enormous total for an unarmored merchant vessel. As early as 1853, this vessel was projected for the East India trade around the Cape of Good Hope. There were then no accessible coal-mines in South Africa, and the Eastern Steam Navigation Company wanted a vessel that could carry its own fuel to India and return, besides, a large number of passengers and a great cargo. The vessel was designed by I. K. Brunel, and was built at the ship-yards of Messrs. Scott, Russell & Co., Millwall, near London. The operation of launching her lasted from Nov. 3, 1857, to Jan. 31, 1858. A new company had to be formed to fit her for sea, as the capital first subscribed for her had all been spent. She was fitted up to convey 4,000 persons from London to Australia, 800 first-class, 2,000 second-class, and 1,200 third-class. She had, besides, capacity for 5,000 tons of merchandise and 15,000 tons of coal. Curiously enough, after all these vast preparations, the ship, during all of her varied career, was never used in the East India trade at all. From the first she was unfortunate. In a test trip from Deptford to Portland Roads, in 1860, an explosion of one of the boilers occurred, when ten firemen were killed and many persons were wounded. The steamer started on her first trip from Liverpool to New York, June 17, 1860, making the trip in eleven days. She made her return trip in August in ten days. She made a number of trips to and from New York during the three years following, but, owing to the lack of freight at profitable rates, she was a source of loss to her owners. In 1864 she was chartered to convey the Atlantic submarine cable; carried the first cable in 1865, which broke in mid-ocean, and also that of 1866, which was laid successfully. During this time, also, the British government occasionally employed her as a transport ship. In 1867 she was again fitted up for a passenger vessel to ply between New York and Europe; sailed for New York March 26, 1867, with accommodations for 2,000 first-class passengers, and returned with 191, and was immediately seized by the seamen as security for their unpaid wages. After this matter was adjusted, the vessel was leased by a cable construction company. She laid the French Atlantic telegraph cable in 1869; went to the Persian Gulf and laid the cable from Bombay to Suez in 1870; in 1873 laid the fourth Atlantic telegraph cable; in 1874 laid the fifth, and was further used to some extent in cable construction. When there seemed to be no more use for her in that line, she was made to serve as a "show." After the vessel had been tried by the government as a coal barge, and proved too unwieldy to do good service, she was condemned to be broken up and sold as junk.

GREAT LAKES AND THE NAVY, THE

Great Lakes and the Navy, THE. The following careful study of the close connection between our navy, the Great Lakes and connecting waterways is by Lieut. J. H. Gibbons, U. S. N.:

The report of the commissioner of navigation for 1897 contains the following statement: "The Great Lakes region, for the first time in our history, has built more tonnage than all the rest of the country: One hundred and twenty vessels of 116,937 tons, compared with 137 vessels of 115,296 tons for the rest of the United States." This statement is fraught with interest to those who are watching the progress of our merchant marine; and as this progress is intimately associated with the growth of the navy, it becomes an important question how far this industrial movement on the Great Lakes may be made a factor in our naval policy.

The coast lines of the Great Lakes border upon nine States containing more than one-third of our population. The six large cities on this coast line will easily aggregate a population of 3,000,000, and to this must be added hundreds of prosperous towns. Until within a few years agricultural products and lumber

were the principal freights in the lake carrying traffic, but the discoveries of iron-ore in the Lake Superior region brought about an unparalleled commercial and maritime growth. This latter industry must necessarily prove far-reaching in its effects; for we are living in the age of steel, and whatever tends to place us abreast of our rivals in the production of steel tends at the same time to increase our prosperity, and to make us great among the nations of the earth.

Turning to the particular branch of the steel industry that is of the most importance to the navy—viz., ship-building, a brief historical retrospect will show that, after years of exclusion, everything points to our again entering the contest for commercial supremacy on the ocean. In the transitory period from wood to metal in ship construction, a period roughly estimated as extending from 1840 to 1880, the American flag practically disappeared from the high seas, while England, who had held for over 200 years the first place as a ship-building and ship-owning power, still maintained her position. Finding her home supply of ship timber exhausted, she began to import it, and as this was necessarily incompatible with the maintenance of her supremacy, the next step was to take advantage of her increasing production of metals. The evolution of the iron ship and its successor, the steel ship, was the result. The period since 1863 has witnessed the production of the English steam fleet, until now British steamers carry the freight and passengers of the greater part of the world. The British ship-yards, too, can now undertake the construction of at least twenty battleships and more than twice this number of cruisers at the same time, a potential strength that adds immensely to the maintenance of her present sea power.

But England will in time be confronted with a new difficulty. The ores in that country are not suitable for steel making, and for some years past large quantities of ore have been imported from mines in the northern part of Spain. These mines are being rapidly exhausted. Four-fifths of the output goes to England, and it has been estimated that at the present rate ten years will exhaust the mines of the Biscay region. Of course there are other sources of supply, Sweden, for example; but they are not easily accessible, and cheapness of transportation is essential. The condition of affairs promises, therefore, to be very much the same, so far as materials go, as it was at that period when England passed from the use of wood to that of metal in building ships.

Let us now look at the condition of the steel industry in the United States. In 1892 there were put out 16,036,043 tons of iron ore, of which the Lake Superior region contributed 9,564,388 tons. The ore from the Great Lakes surpasses in richness the ores from any other part of the country. New discoveries are being constantly reported, and the deposits are so easily accessible as to make it possible to supply any demand. Since 1888 there has been an enormous development in this new industry in the Lake Superior region, until the amount of capital invested in mining and transportation is estimated at $234,000,000. The rapid growth of this industry justifies the prediction that with access to the ocean by a practicable deep water-way we can not only balance our domestic iron and steel trade, but also compete in the foreign market. At present many iron and steel plants on the seaboard import foreign iron ores, as the low value of iron ore in proportion to its weight shuts out transportation by rail from the West. But with a deep-water canal reaching from the Great Lakes to the ocean, the ores required by the manufacturers on the Atlantic seaboard could be supplied more cheaply than the foreign ores, thus increasing the field for capital and industry, while at the same time the iron and steel of the establishments on the Great Lakes could be shipped through by water without breaking bulk and seek the markets of the world.

This brings us to the subject of deep-water canals. For several years, while the national government has been busy with the projected Nicaraguan canal, the people of the West, through private endeavor and public discussion, have been agitating the question of deep water-ways, from the Great Lakes to the seaboard. The International Deep Water-ways Convention met at Cleveland, O., Sept. 24, 1895, and among the delegates were many

business men, noted capitalists, and civil engineers from the Lake States, and also from the Dominion of Canada. Through the efforts of this association the matter was brought before Congress by Senator William Vilas, of Wisconsin, who, on Feb. 8, 1895, introduced a joint resolution authorizing a preliminary inquiry concerning deep water-ways between the ocean and the Great Lakes. This resolution was incorporated in the sundry civil appropriation bill, and became a law on March 2, 1895. On Nov. 4 the President, in conformity with its provisions, appointed three commissioners, James B. Angell, of Michigan; John E. Russel, of Massachusetts; and Lyman E. Cooley, of Illinois. Soon after this, the Dominion of Canada appointed a similar commission, and a joint meeting was held in January, 1896. The United States commission spent a year in thoroughly investigating the canal question, and submitted their report to the President Jan. 8, 1897. In this letter transmitting the report to Congress, President Cleveland says:

"The advantages of a direct and unbroken water transportation of the products of our Western States and Territories from a convenient point of shipment to our seaboard ports are plainly palpable. The report of the commissioners contains, in my opinion, a demonstration of the feasibility of securing such transportation, and gives ground for the anticipation that better and more uninterrupted commerce, through the plan suggested, between the Great West and foreign ports, with the increase of national prosperity which must follow in its train, will not long escape American enterprise and activity."

Meanwhile American "enterprise and activity" have been giving the world an object-lesson in canal building. The Chicago drainage canal, designed primarily to furnish an adequate system of drainage for the city of Chicago, but containing all the features of a ship canal, is a municipal undertaking that is particularly valuable in showing the immense improvement in excavating machines and the resultant low cost of canal building. The main drainage channel extends from the west fork of the south branch of the Chicago River southwest to Lockport, a distance of about 29 miles. The width at the top is from 162 feet to 300 feet, and at the bottom from 160 feet to 200 feet. The depth of water varies from 23 feet to 26 feet. According to present estimates, it will cost $27,303,216. A statement has been made that the work of excavation will be carried out for less than half the cost of similar work on the Manchester ship canal, the dimensions of which are, length, 30½ miles; width at top, 172 feet; width at bottom, 120 feet; depth, 26 feet.

President Cleveland's prediction, therefore, that the feasibility of deep-water transportation from the Great Lakes to the ocean will not long escape American enterprise, bids fair to be realized. If the city of Chicago can demonstrate practically that deep-water canal building has been brought within the bounds of reasonable cost, the general government must, in response to urgent appeals from a large section of the country interested, soon pass beyond the stage of preliminary investigation to that of definite action. Thus far the question of cost has not been thoroughly dealt with, but valuable data have been collected. Among the more important conclusions reached by the United States Deep Water-ways Commission are the following:

1. That it is entirely feasible to construct such canals and develop such channels as will give 28 feet of water from the Great Lakes to the seaboard.

2. That, starting from the heads of Lakes Michigan and Superior, the most eligible route is through the several Great Lakes and their intermediate channels and the proposed Niagara ship canal (Tonawanda to Olcott) to Lake Ontario. From Lake Ontario the Canadian seaboard can be reached by the way of the St. Lawrence River, while the American seaboard can be reached by way of the St. Lawrence River, Lake Champlain and the Hudson River, or by way of the Oswego-Oneida-Mohawk Valley route and the Hudson River.

3. That while our policy of canal building should contemplate the ultimate development of the largest useful capacity, and all work should be planned on that basis, at the same time it is practicable to develop the work in separate sections, each step having its economic justification. The Niagara ship canal should

first be undertaken, and incidentally the broadening and deepening of the intermediate channels of the lakes.

Such then is a brief *résumé* of this important industrial movement and its collateral engineering undertakings. From a military point of view, a series of canals entirely within the limits of the United States could be more readily defended. But the advantages of following, as far as possible, the natural waterways will at first probably outweigh the question of defence. If the lake coast-line of over 3,000 miles is brought into deep-water connection with the Atlantic seaboard, its permanent defence will be a question for the army. On the other hand, if permanent arbitration is to be depended upon as a warrant for following natural commercial routes without any thought of ultimate defence, the international character of parts of the work and the riparian interests involved will make the readjustment of the existing treaty relations a question for our statesmen.

Coming now to the direct interests of the navy in this politico-economic question, it will be found that under existing conditions there is little hope of any immediate addition from this new source to our war-vessel tonnage. The Rush-Bagot convention of 1817, entered into by the United States and Great Britain, provides that the naval forces to be maintained on the Great Lakes shall be confined on each side to one vessel on Lake Ontario, one vessel on Lake Champlain, and two vessels on the Upper Lakes. These vessels are limited to 100 tons burden and an armament of one 18-pounder cannon each. This treaty has not taken the shape of a formal international treaty, but has been practically accepted as binding by both countries for a period of three-quarters of a century. Its stipulations have twice during its history been notably disregarded, once by each country, but only on occasions of serious public emergency. In view of the great progress made in ship-building and marine engineering, it is not strange that there has been an evasion of the spirit of these antique stipulations, if not a direct violation of the letter of the law. The United States steamer *Michigan*, now in service on the Upper Lakes, is of 685 tons displacement, and has a main battery of four 6-pounder guns. In the building up of the new navy, some of the ship-builders on the Great Lakes, whose energy and enterprise had gone so far as to build whalebacks that were towed through the canals in sections and put together at Montreal, began to inquire whether these methods would not be extended to war vessels. In 1890 F. W. Wheeler & Co., of West Bay City, Mich., were the lowest bidders for the construction of an armored cruiser, one protected cruiser, and a practice ship. In 1895, the Detroit Dry-Dock Company proposed the construction of parts of vessels of war. Both of these bids were rejected by the Navy Department as being in violation of the Rush-Bagot agreement. The clause of the agreement which was adjudged to prohibit such construction is as follows: "All other armored vessels (besides those authorized to be retained) on these lakes shall be forthwith dismantled, *and no other vessels of war shall be there built or armed.*" On account of this decision, the activity in shipbuilding for government purposes has been confined, on the Great Lakes, to revenue cutters and light ships. The Mississippi Valley, unhampered by these restrictions, has built one torpedo-boat, the *Ericsson*.

Although vessels of war cannot be built on the Great Lakes, the building there of merchant vessels that by means of the projected canals will be able to reach the seaboard will have an indirect bearing on the future of the navy. Captain Mahan and other writers have pointed out that we have practically reversed the natural order of things in building vessels of war before building up the merchant marine. For more than twenty years the government has been a steady customer of the ship-builders on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts. As a result ship-building plants have been improved, workmen have been trained, and contributory industries have been developed. But it is claimed by these builders that the patronage of the government is a temporary help only and that the demands of our coastwise trade are insufficient to promote ship-building on a large scale. The main demand for ships must be created by an extensive foreign trade carried

on in American bottoms. It has been demonstrated that the economic changes which will be brought about by a deep-water route from the Great Lakes to the seaboard will enable us to compete with England in the ocean-carrying trade. Since the Civil War, all our energies have been directed towards purely domestic development, and capital has sought investments in the extension of railways, the settlement of new territory, and the industrial regeneration of the South. The events of more recent years force us to look beyond the limits of our own shores, and our diplomacy has made the Monroe Doctrine something more than a rhetorical declaration. If we boldly aspire to commercial and political supremacy in the western hemisphere, and to the creation of a foreign carrying trade, we must admit the absolute necessity for a steadily increasing navy.

The canal-builders and the ship-builders of the Great Lakes have shown that, if they are accorded the proper encouragement by the national government, the country may rest satisfied with its resources for establishing a foreign commerce carried in domestic bottoms and to provide naval war material to protect it. Behind these industrial leaders stand, as has been said before, more than one-third of the entire population of the United States. Nothing can be more gratifying to the navy than the growth of a sentiment favorable to it in a region that a few years ago was most apathetic. To-day the citizens of the Middle West show a lively interest in naval affairs, and are taking a prominent part in naval militia work. Chicago, Saginaw, Detroit, Toledo, Cleveland, and Rochester have large, flourishing naval militia organizations. The Detroit organization recently took the old *Yantic* from Montreal to Detroit without either State or national aid. In Rochester the boat reconnoissance work on Lake Ontario performed by the local organization has received well-merited praise from the War College. These are only two instances, but they show the existence of a patriotic spirit that ought to be fostered and directed to the proper ends. Here is a new field for recruiting the naval *personnel*.

There is a vague idea among many naval officers that we really possess a strong naval reserve in our seafaring population. Careful investigation will prove that this is not a fact. In the merchant marine and deep-sea fisheries from 50 per cent. to 70 per cent. of the men are foreigners, and the number of men available, even if they all enlisted, which of course would be impossible, would not serve to put the navy on a war footing. The Naval War College has been investigating the various phases that war on our coast might assume, and has found that we shall need a great number of officers, in addition to those of the regular navy. Where are these additional officers to come from? The sources from which they were obtained in 1861 no longer exist, for our deep-sea merchant shipping has practically disappeared. Captain Taylor, of the War College, has given the following brief summary of the present condition of affairs:

"... The same conditions do not exist now as did during the Rebellion. That war, especially on the part of the navy, was offensive and attacked an enemy upon its own coast, and required a large number of deep-sea ships and deep-sea officers.

"The wars for which we must plan, at least for the next few years, are defensive for our part, and to be waged against enemies probably superior to us on the sea. This throws upon us as a principal rôle the defence of our coast and the supplementing of our small sea-going navy by a formidable flotilla of small craft, which when thoroughly organized and drilled, shall dominate our channels, sounds, and bays, and make their comfortable or permanent occupation by hostile fleets an impossibility."

Our small sea-going navy is now manifestly undermanned. As additions are made to its *material*, the deficiency in *personnel* is partly made up by stop-gap legislation — always an unsatisfactory process. As a business proposition, there has been among our legislators a desire to build up an adequate navy, but as a purely naval undertaking there has always been opposition to providing the necessary *personnel*. England is now going through an interesting experience, of which we may well take heed. For

several years the naval policy of that country has tended towards maintaining in time of peace a *personnel* that is practically on a war footing. The objection to this policy has been that it involves an immense expenditure in pay, provisions, and pensions, besides the maintenance of ships to give the necessary instruction at sea. The alternative has been to develop the efficiency of the naval reserve. But here the supporters of such a plan have met with the same difficulties that beset us—*i. e.*, the merchant marine, which ought to be the source of supply of the naval reserve, is becoming honeycombed with foreigners. Reliable calculations show that the number of foreigners in British ships increased 22 3-10 per cent. in eight years. Poor wages and the natural discomforts of sea life caused men of British birth to seek employment as skilled workers ashore.

But the United States has one advantage over England. The latter, in inspecting the source of supply for the naval reserve, has turned to her widely scattered colonies, and reasonably expects that in time of war they will contribute their share of men. The peculiar system of federal government of the United States permits it to rely, in a measure, upon the States to organize and maintain volunteers for national defence, although until recently the system was applied almost exclusively to recruiting the land forces. In 1888 an unsuccessful attempt was made in Congress to create a naval reserve of officers and men from the merchant marine. Several States bordering upon the sea-coast then made the matter a local issue, and what were called "naval battalions to be attached to the volunteer militia" was the result. With the Great Lakes brought into deep-water communication with the Mississippi and the Atlantic seaboard, a cordon of coast-line States will be formed whose similarity of interests will greatly increase the source from which the country can draw for that second line of defence required in time of war to "dominate our channels, sounds, and bays." Barred by the Rocky Mountains, the Pacific coast stands apart from any immediate benefits from interior waterway improvements, but the building of an isthmian canal will bring into closer relations with the other maritime States kindred interests that have already produced such excellent shipbuilders, and such skilled seamen.

To those who doubt the possibility of recruiting inland men for general service in the navy, and who question the ultimate efficiency of the men thus recruited, it is only necessary to point out that in a single summer the bureau of navigation established recruiting stations on the Great Lakes, during the busiest part of the navigation season, and from more than 500 applications enlisted 300 men, seamen and mechanics. These men, according to the reports from the officers of ships to which they were assigned, were all of very high standard.

They were self-respecting Americans. This in itself is a great gain. After recruiting the general service to three-quarters of its full war strength, which can be done as occasion demands, by the enlistment of seamen and mechanics, and by fostering the apprentice system, a naval reserve will have to be depended upon to supply the remaining fourth, and to make up the wastage of war. This is the English estimate, and it is apparently sound. Until the national government takes up the naval reserve question the business and professional men who, combining a patriotic spirit with aquatic tastes, enlist in the naval militia, will be very valuable aids in examining into and keeping informed concerning the seafaring *personnel* of their States. The energy and executive ability of the men that have taken hold of this movement in the West (many of them graduates of the Naval Academy) can be depended upon in case of sudden need to enroll a very desirable set of men, and thus relieve the regular navy of preliminary work which its scarcity of regular officers would otherwise make a very difficult undertaking.

One word more about our seafaring population. Recent investigation by the War College has developed the fact that during the Civil War a large number of men—fishermen and local watermen—along the North Atlantic coast did not enlist for service in the regular navy. The long term of enlistment required, coupled with the fact that the sea had no novelty for them, may have blunted their patriot-

ism. An inquiry among their successors confirms the opinion that they would much prefer to be utilized for local defence. Torpedo-boat flotillas, mosquito fleets, coast signal stations, and submarine mining squads would therefore be able to obtain among this class very valuable recruits, while the cruising navy, especially with its term of enlistment extended, as has frequently been recommended, from three to four years, would not succeed in attracting them.

The foregoing propositions and the conclusions to be drawn from them may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. The Great Lakes region has developed the iron and steel industry to a degree that enables it to surpass all the rest of the United States in the important industry of ship-building.

2. The improvements in canal building make it only a question of time when this region will have a deep-water outlet to the sea.

3. The result of this deep water-way will be the rehabilitation of our merchant marine and the creation of an extensive foreign trade carried in American bottoms.

4. The expansion of our merchant marine will be followed necessarily by the expansion of the navy.

5. The Great Lakes region is debarred by existing treaty relations from contributing *material* for naval warfare, but, containing as it does more than one-third of our entire population, the navy should, as a peace precaution, give immediate encouragement to the naval-militia movement in that part of the United States, thus developing a source of supply for the large increase in our *personnel* that war will render necessary. See SHIP-BUILDING.

The names of Perry and Chauncey remind us that Lake Erie and Lake Ontario were once the scene of important naval battles. In the hurried preparations of those days, when officers and men were brought from the seaboard over rough trails to improvise and man flotillas on the lakes, the frontiersman stood ready with his rifle to aid the sailor. To-day, when the brig has given place to the battle-ship, and the 32-pounder to the 13-inch gun, the descendants of these frontiersmen may be depended upon to furnish their quota of men that have the handiness of the seaman, the skill of the gunner, and the ingenuity of the artisan. The scene changes to the high seas, but in the ranks of the militia coast-defenders will be found the same spirit that animated the volunteers at Put-in-Bay and Sackett's Harbor.

Great Seal of the Confederacy, THE, was made in England, and completed July, 1864, at a cost of $600. It reached Richmond in April, 1865, but was never used. It is now in the office of the State secretary of South Carolina.

Great Seal of the United States. See SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Great Water. See MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

Greek Fire, a combustible composition (unknown, thought to have been principally naphtha) invented by Callinicus, an engineer of Heliopolis, in Syria, in the seventh century, and used by the Greek emperors. A so-called Greek fire, probably a solution of phosphorus in bisulphide of carbon, was employed at the siege of Charleston, S. C., in 1863. The use of all such substances in war is now prohibited, under a decision of the International Peace Conference at The Hague in 1889.

Greeley, HORACE, journalist; born in Amherst, N. H., Feb. 3, 1811. Fond of reading almost from babyhood, he felt a strong desire as he grew to youth to become a printer, and in 1826 was apprenticed to the art in Poultney, Vt., where he became an expert workman. His parents had moved to Erie, Pa., and during his minority he visited them twice, walking nearly the whole way. In August, 1831, he was in New York in search of work, with $10 in his pocket. He worked as a journeyman until 1833, when he began business on his own account, with a partner, printing the *Morning Post*, the first penny daily paper (owned by Dr. H. D. Shepard) ever published. His partner (Storey) was drowned in July, and Jonas Winchester took his place. The new firm issued the *New Yorker*, devoted mainly to current literature, in 1834, of which Mr. Greeley was editor. The paper reached a circulation of 9,000, and continued seven years. In 1840 he edited and published the *Log Cabin*, a campaign paper that obtained a circulation of 80,000 copies; and

on April 10, 1841, he issued the first number of the *Daily Tribune*, a small sheet that sold for one cent. In the fall of that year the *Weekly Tribune* was issued. Mr. Greeley formed a partnership with Thomas McElrath, who took charge of the business department, and from that time until his death he was identified with the New

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York *Tribune*. Of Mr. Greeley's career in connection with that paper it is not necessary here to speak, for it is generally known. His course on political and social questions was erratic. He believed it better, before the Civil War broke out, to let the States secede if the majority of the people said so. When Jefferson Davis was to be released on bail he volunteered his signature to his bail-bond; and yet during the whole war he was thoroughly loyal. In 1869 he was defeated as the Republican candidate for comptroller of the State of New York; and in 1872 he accepted a nomination for President of the United States from the LIBERAL REPUBLICAN PARTY (*q. v.*), and the nomination was endorsed by the Democratic convention (see WILSON, HENRY). It is evident now that for a year or more Mr. Greeley was overworked; and when the election that year was over, and he was defeated, his brain, doubly taxed by anxiety at the bedside of a dying wife, was prostrated with disease. He died in Pleasantville, N. Y., Nov. 29, 1872. Mr. Greeley was the author of several books, his most considerable work being a history of the Civil War, in 2 volumes, *The American Conflict*. Mr. Greeley died in a full belief in the doctrine of universal salvation, which he had held for many years.

In the summer of 1864 a number of leading conspirators against the life of the republic were at the Clifton House, at Niagara Falls, in Canada, where they plotted schemes for exciting hostile feelings between the United States and Great Britain; for burning Northern cities; rescuing the Confederate prisoners on and near the borders of Canada; spreading contagious diseases in the national military camps; and, ultimately, much greater mischief. These agents were visited by members of the PEACE PARTY (*q. v.*). At the suggestion, it is said, of a conspicuous leader of that faction, a scheme was set on foot to make the loyal people, who yearned for an honorable peace, dissatisfied with the administration. The Confederates at the Clifton House employed a Northern politician to address a letter to Mr. Greeley, informing him that a delegation of Confederates were authorized to go to Washington in the interest of peace if full protection could be guaranteed them. The kindly heart of Mr. Greeley sympathized with this movement, for he did not suspect a trick. He drew up a "Plan of Adjustment," which he sent, with the letter of the Confederates, to President Lincoln, and urged the latter to respond to it. The more sagacious President had no confidence in the professions of these conspirators; yet, unwilling to seem heedless of any proposition for peace, he deputed Mr. Greeley to bring to him any person or persons "professing to have any proposition of Jefferson Davis, in writing, for peace, embracing the restoration of the Union and abandonment of slavery," with an assurance of safe conduct for him or them each way. Considerable correspondence ensued. Mr. Greeley went to Niagara Falls. Then the Confederates pretended there was a misunderstanding. The matter became vexatious, and the President sent positive instructions to Greeley prescribing explicitly what propositions he would receive—namely, for a restoration of peace, the integrity of the whole Union, and the abandonment of slavery, and which might come by and

with the authority that could control the armies then at war with the United States. This declaration was the grand object of the Confederates at Niagara, and they used it to "fire the Southern heart" and to sow the seeds of discontent among the loyal people of the land.

Accepting Presidential Nominations.—The Liberal Republican Convention, held in Cincinnati, gave him the nomination for the Presidency on May 1, 1872, and on the 3d the committee on notifications informed him of the convention's choice. On the day following the nomination Mr. Greeley retired from all connection with the editorial department of the *Tribune*, and on May 20 he accepted the nomination in the following letter to the committee:

NEW YORK, *May 20, 1872.*

Gentlemen,—I have chosen not to acknowledge your letter of the 3d inst. until I could learn how the work of your convention was received in all parts of our great country, and judge whether that work was approved and ratified by the mass of our fellow-citizens. Their response has from day to day reached me through telegrams, letters, and the comments of journalists independent of official patronage and indifferent to the smiles or frowns of power. The number and character of these unconstrained, unpurchased, unsolicited utterances satisfy me that the movement which found expression at Cincinnati has received the stamp of public approval, and been hailed by a majority of our countrymen as the harbinger of a better day for the republic.

I do not misinterpret this approval as especially complimentary to myself, nor even to the chivalrous and justly esteemed gentleman with whose name I thank your convention for associating mine. I receive and welcome it as a spontaneous and deserved tribute to that admirable platform of principles wherein your convention so tersely, so lucidly, so forcibly set forth the convictions which impelled, and the purposes which guided its course; a platform which, casting behind it the wreck and rubbish of worn-out contentions and by-gone feuds, embodies in fit and few words the needs and aspirations of to-day. Though thousands stand ready to condemn your every act, hardly a syllable of criticism or cavil has been aimed at your platform, of which the substance may be fairly epitomized as follows:

1. All the political rights and franchises which have been acquired through our late bloody convulsion must and shall be guaranteed, maintained, enjoyed, respected evermore.

2. All the political rights and franchises which have been lost through that convulsion should and must be promptly restored and re-established, so that there shall be henceforth no proscribed class and no disfranchised caste within the limits of our Union, whose long-estranged people shall unite and fraternize upon the broad basis of universal amnesty with impartial suffrage.

3. That, subject to our solemn constitutional obligation to maintain the equal rights of all citizens, our policy should aim at local self-government and not at centralization; that the civil authority should be supreme over the military; that the writ of *habeas corpus* should be jealously upheld as the safeguard of personal freedom; that the individual citizen should enjoy the largest liberty consistent with public order, and that there shall be no federal subversion of the internal polity of the several States and municipalities, but that each shall be left free to enforce the rights and promote the well-being of its inhabitants by such means as the judgment of its own people shall prescribe.

4. There shall be a real and not merely a simulated reform in the civil service of the republic; to which end it is indispensable that the chief dispenser of its vast official patronage shall be shielded from the main temptation to use his power selfishly, by a rule inexorably forbidding and precluding his re-election.

5. That the raising of revenues, whether by tariff or otherwise, shall be recognized and treated as the people's immediate business, to be shaped and directed by them through their representatives in Congress, whose action thereon the President must neither overrule by his veto, attempt to dictate, nor presume to punish, by bestowing office only on those who agree with him or withdrawing it from those who do not.

6. That the public lands must be sacredly reserved for occupation and acquisition by cultivators, and not recklessly squandered on the projectors of railroads, for which our people have no present need, and the premature construction of which is annually plunging us into deeper and deeper abysses of foreign indebtedness.

7. That the achievement of these grand purposes of universal beneficence is expected and sought at the hands of all who approve them, irrespective of past affiliations.

8. That the public faith must at all hazards be maintained and the national credit preserved.

9. That the patriotic devotedness and inestimable services of our fellow-citizens, who, as soldiers or sailors, upheld the flag and maintained the unity of the republic, shall ever be gratefully remembered and honorably requited.

These propositions, so ably and forcibly presented in the platform by your convention, have already fixed the attention and commanded the assent of a large majority of our countrymen, who joyfully adopt them as I do, as the basis of a true, beneficent national reconstruction—of a new departure from jealousies, strifes, and hates, which have no longer adequate motive or even plausible pretext, into an atmosphere of peace, fraternity, and mutual good-will. In vain do the drill-sergeants of decaying organizations flourish menacingly their truncheons and angrily insist that the files shall be closed and straightened; in vain do the whippers-in of parties once vital, because rooted in the vital needs of the hour, protest against straying and bolting, denounce men nowise their inferiors as traitors and renegades, and threaten them with infamy and ruin. I am confident that the American people have already made your cause their own, fully resolved that their brave hearts and strong arms shall bear it on to triumph. In this faith and with the distinct understanding that, if elected, I shall be the President not of a party but of the whole people, I accept your nomination, in the confident trust that the masses of our countrymen North and South are eager to clasp hands across the bloody chasm which has too long divided them, forgetting that they have been enemies in the joyful consciousness that they are and must henceforth remain brethren.

Yours gratefully,

HORACE GREELEY.

The National Democratic Convention met in Baltimore on July 9, and also gave its nomination to Mr. Greeley. To the address of the committee on notifications Mr. Greeley responded as follows:

Mr. Chairman and Gentlemen of the Committee of the Convention,—I should require time and consideration to reply fitly to the very important and, I need not say, gratifying communication that you have presented to me. It may be that I should present in writing some reply to this. However, as I addressed the Liberal convention, of Cincinnati, in a letter somewhat widely considered, it is, perhaps, unnecessary that I should make any formal reply to the communication made, other than to say I accept your nomination, and accept gratefully with it the spirit in which it has been presented. My position is one which many would consider a proud one, which, at the same time, is embarrassing, because it subjects me to temporary—I trust only temporary—misconstruction on the part of some old and lifelong friends. I feel assured that time only is necessary to vindicate, not only the disinterestedness, but the patriotism, of the course which I determined to pursue, which I had determined long before I had received so much sympathy and support as has, so unexpectedly to me, been bestowed upon me. I feel certain that time, and, in the good Providence of God, an opportunity, will be afforded me to show that, while you, in making this nomination, are not less Democratic, but rather more Democratic, than you would have been in taking an opposite course, I am no less thoroughly and earnestly Republican than ever I was. But these matters require grave consideration before I should make anything that seems a formal response. I am not much accustomed to receiving nominations for the Presidency, and cannot make responses so fluently as some other might do. I can only say that I hope some, or all, if you can make it convenient, will come to my humble farm-house, not far distant in the country, where I shall be glad to meet all

of you, and where we can converse more freely and deliberately than we can here, and where I shall be glad to make you welcome—well, to the best the farm affords. I hope that many of you—all of you—will be able to accept this invitation, and I now simply thank you and say farewell. Take the 8.10 train.

On July 18, he addressed a fuller expression of his views on the political situtation to the committee in the following letter:

Gentlemen, — Upon mature deliberation, it seems fit that I should give to your letter of the 10th inst. some further and fuller response than the hasty, unpremeditated words in which I acknowledged and accepted your nomination at our meeting on the 12th.

That your convention saw fit to accord its highest honor to one who had been prominently and pointedly opposed to your party in the earnest and sometimes angry controversies of the last forty years is essentially noteworthy. That many of you originally preferred that the Liberal Republicans should present another candidate for President, and would more readily have united with us in the support of Adams or Trumbull, Davis or Brown, is well known. I owe my adoption at Baltimore wholly to the fact that I had already been nominated at Cincinnati, and that a concentration of forces upon any new ticket had been proved impracticable. Gratified as I am at your concurrence in the nominations, certain as I am that you would not have thus concurred had you not deemed me upright and capable, I find nothing in the circumstance calculated to inflame vanity or nourish self-conceit.

But that your convention saw fit, in adopting the Cincinnati ticket, to reaffirm the Cincinnati platform, is to me a source of profoundest satisfaction. That body was constrained to take this important step by no party necessity, real or supposed. It might have accepted the candidates of the Liberal Republicans upon grounds entirely its own, or it might have presented them (as the first Whig national convention did Harrison and Tyler) without adopting any platform whatever. That it chose to plant itself deliberately, by a vote nearly unanimous, upon the fullest and clearest enunciation of principles which are at once incontestably Republican and emphatically Democratic, gives trustworthy assurance that a new and more auspicious era is dawning upon our long-distracted country.

Some of the best years and best efforts of my life were devoted to a struggle none the less earnest or arduous because respect for constitutional obligations constrained me to act, for the most part, on the defensive, in resistance to the diffusion rather than in direct efforts for the extension of human bondage. Throughout most of those years my vision was uncheered, my exertions were rarely animated by even so much as a hope that I should live to see my country peopled by freemen alone. The affirmance by your convention of the Cincinnati platform is a most conclusive proof that not merely is slavery abolished, but that its spirit is extinct; that, despite the protests of a respectable but isolated few, there remains among us no party and no formidable interests which regret the overthrow or desire the re-establishment of human bondage, whether in letter or in spirit. I am thereby justified in my hope and trust that the first century of American independence will not close before the grand elemental truths on which its rightfulness was based by Jefferson and the Continental Congress of 1776 will no longer be regarded as 'glittering generalities,' but will have become the universally accepted and honored foundations of our political fabric.

I demand the prompt application of those principles to our existing conditions. Having done what I could for the complete emancipation of blacks, I now insist on the full enfranchisement of all my white countrymen. Let none say that the ban has just been removed from all but a few hundred elderly gentlemen, to whom eligibility to office can be of little consequence. My view contemplates not the hundreds proscribed, but the millions who are denied the right to be ruled and represented by the men of their unfettered choice. Proscription were absurd if these did not wish to elect the very men whom they were forbidden to choose.

I have a profound regard for the people of that New England wherein I was born, in whose common schools I was taught. I rank no other people above them in intelligence, capacity, and moral worth. But, while they do many things well, and some admirably, there is one thing which I am sure they cannot wisely or safely undertake, and that is the selection, for States remote from and unlike their own, of the persons by whom those States shall be represented in Congress. If they do all this to good purpose, then republican institutions were unfit, and aristocracy the only true political system.

Yet what have we recently witnessed? Zebulon B. Vance, the unquestionable choice of a large majority of the present legislature of North Carolina—a majority backed by a majority of the people who voted at its election—refused the seat in the federal Senate to which he was fairly chosen, and the legislature thus constrained to choose another in his stead or leave the State unrepresented for years. The votes of New England thus deprived North Carolina of the Senator of her choice, and compelled her to send another in his stead—another who, in our late contest, was, like Vance, a Confederate, and a fighting Confederate, but one who had not served in Congress before the war as Vance had, though the latter remained faithful to the Union till after the close of his term. I protest against the disfranchisement of a State—presumptively, of a number of States—on grounds so narrow and technical as this. The fact that the same Senate which refused Vance his seat proceeded to remove his disabilities after that seat had been filled by another only serves to place in stronger light the indignity to North Carolina, and the arbitrary, capricious tyranny which dictated it.

I thank you, gentlemen, that my name is to be conspicuously associated with yours in the determined effort to render amnesty complete and universal in spirit as well as in letter. Even defeat in such a cause would leave no sting, while triumph would rank with those victories which no blood reddens and which invoke no tears but those of gratitude and joy.

Gentlemen, your platform, which is also mine, assures me that Democracy is not henceforth to stand for one thing and Republicanism for another, but that those terms are to mean in politics, as they always have meant in the dictionary, substantially one and the same thing—namely, equal rights regardless of creed, or clime, or color. I hail this as a genuine new departure from out-worn feuds and meaningless contentions, in the direction of progress and reform. Whether I shall be found worthy to bear the standard of the great liberal movement which the American people have inaugurated is to be determined not by words but by deeds. With me if I steadily advance, over me if I falter, its grand army moves on to achieve for our country her glorious, beneficent destiny.

I remain, gentlemen, yours,

HORACE GREELEY.

Greely, ADOLPHUS WASHINGTON, explorer; born in Newburyport, Mass., March 27, 1844; was liberally educated; and at the breaking out of the Civil War joined the volunteer army and served faithfully until the close of the strife, when he was commissioned a lieutenant in the regular army and assigned to the signal service. In 1881 he commanded an expedition sent into the arctic regions by the government to establish a series of circumpolar stations for scientific observations, in accordance with a plan of the International Geographical Congress held at Hamburg in 1879. He landed with his party of twenty-five at Discovery Harbor, in lat. 81° 44′ N., on Aug. 12, 1881. They made their permanent camp at Cape Sabine in October, 1883, where they suffered intensely for want of supplies which had failed to reach them. There all but six of the twenty-five died of starvation. The six, of whom Lieutenant Greely was one, were rescued by a relief party under CAPT. WINFIELD S. SCHLEY (*q. v.*) on June 22, 1884. Had the rescuers been forty-eight hours later, not one of the party would have been found alive. The living, and the dead bodies, were brought home. Two officers of the party, Lieutenant Lockwood and Sergeant Brainerd, had penetrated to lat. 83° 24′ N., and hoisted the American flag. It was the highest northerly point that had then been attained. On the death of GEN. WILLIAM

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B. HAZEN (*q. v.*), Greely was appointed his successor.

Green, ANDREW HASWELL, lawyer; born in Worcester, Mass., Oct. 6, 1820; studied law and began practice in New York City. He was at different times city comptroller, president of the Board of Education, comptroller of Central Park, president of the Park Commission, a trustee of the New York Public Library and of the Museum of Natural History, originator of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, etc. He was popularly known as the "Father" of the park system of New York, and as the "Father" of the Greater New York. He was murdered in New York, Nov. 13, 1903.

Green, BARTHOLOMEW, publisher; born in Cambridge, Mass., Oct. 12, 1666; son of Samuel Green; succeeded his father as printer, in Boston, and on April 24, 1704, issued the first number of the *Boston News - Letter.* He died in Boston, Dec. 28, 1732.

Green, BERIAH, reformer; born in New York in 1794; graduated at Middlebury College in 1819; settled in Ohio in 1821, and became president of the Oneida Institute in 1824; was a leader in the organization of the American Anti-Slavery Society, and for some time its president. He was the author of *History of the Quakers.* He died in Whitestown, N. Y., May 4, 1874.

Green, DUFF, journalist; born in Kentucky, Aug. 15, 1791. In 1829–33 he conducted the *United States Telegram.* It was declared that he exerted a large influence over President Jackson, and the opponents of the President included Green in what they termed the "kitchen cabinet." Green published *Facts and Suggestions.* He died in Dalton, Ga., June 10, 1875.

Green, SAMUEL, second printer in the United States; born in England in 1615; succeeded Day (see DAY, or DAYE, STEPHEN) in 1648. He printed the Cambridge Platform in 1649, the entire Bible and Psalter, translated into the Indian language by John Eliot the Apostle, in 1663, and many other books. He died in Cambridge, Mass., Jan. 1, 1792.

Green, SAMUEL ABBOTT, physician; born in Groton, Mass., March 16, 1830; graduated at Harvard College in 1851, and at Harvard Medical School in 1854; served in the Civil War as assistant surgeon and surgeon; and received the brevet of lieutenant-colonel in 1864. He is the author of *History of Medicine in Massachusetts; Groton During the Indian*

Wars; and of several volumes in the *Groton Historical Series.*

Green, SETH, pisciculturist; born in Rochester, N. Y., March 19, 1817; was educated in the public schools of his native city. He early showed a passion for fishing and hunting, and in 1837 discovered how to propagate fish artificially. In 1838 he went to Canada and studied the habits of salmon, which he observed ate their spawn as soon as it was cast. He established methods to prevent this and increased the yield of fish to 95 per cent. In 1864 he settled in Caledonia, N. Y., where he propagated fish by impregnating dry spawn by an artificial method. In 1867 the fish commissioners of New England invited him to experiment in the hatching of shad. Going to Holyoke, he made improvements which in an incredibly short time hatched 15,000,000, and in 1868 40,000,000. In the latter year he was made superintendent of the New York State fisheries. In 1871 he sent the first shad ever transported to California. As a result of this trial more than 1,000,000 shad were sent to the Pacific coast in 1885. During his life he hatched by artificial methods the spawn of about twenty kinds of fish. He was the author of *Trout Culture* and *Fish Hatching and Fish Catching.* He died in Rochester, N. Y., Aug. 20, 1888.

Green, THOMAS, military officer; born in Virginia in 1816; settled in Texas early in life; served in the war with Mexico; and when the Civil War began joined the Confederate army, and took part in the engagements of Valverde, Bisland, and Galveston, and the capture of the United States revenue-cutter *Harriet Lane.* In 1863 he defeated the National army in the action of Bayou la Fourche; was promoted major-general in recognition of his gallantry; and was fatally wounded at Pleasant Hill, La., by a shot from a United States war-ship, April 12, 1864, and died two days afterwards.

Greenbacks, the name popularly given to issues of paper currency by the national government in the Civil War and reconstruction periods, because the lettering and devices on the back of the notes were printed with green ink. This circumstance gave birth also to the name of Greenbacker, applied to those who opposed the resumption of specie payments, according to the act of Congress of Jan. 7, 1875, which designated Jan. 1, 1879, as the day on which the government and national banks would make such resumption. The opponents of the measure favored the continual issue of a paper currency that should be given the quality of a full legal tender. For several years the Greenbackers formed a considerable body of citizens and maintained a national political organization. See FIAT MONEY; CURRENCY, NATIONAL; FINANCES, UNITED STATES; GREENBACK PARTY; SPECIE PAYMENTS.

Greenback Party, a political organization founded at a convention at Indianapolis, Ind., on Nov. 25, 1874. At that time three propositions which have been the foundation of all greenback platforms were endorsed. These read as follows: 1. That the currency of all national and State banks and corporations should be withdrawn; 2. That the only currency should be a paper one, issued by the government, "based on the faith and resources of the nation," exchangeable on demand for bonds bearing interest at 3.65 per cent.; and 3. That coin should only be paid for interest on the present national debt, and for that portion of the principal for which coin had been specifically promised. For a time the progress of the Greenback party was hindered by the adoption of these three propositions in the Democratic State conventions, but in 1876 the party was again revived. A national convention was held in Indianapolis, May 17, 1876, and Peter Cooper, of New York, was nominated for President, with Samuel F. Cory, of Ohio, for Vice-President. The election returns showed a popular vote of 81,737 for these candidates. On Feb. 22, 1878, the Labor-reform and Greenback parties were united in a national convention held in Toledo, O., and a few new resolutions in favor of legislative reduction of working-men's hours of labor and against the contract system of using inmates of prisons were added to the Greenback platform. This fusion of the two parties met with much approbation, as was evidenced in the State and congressional elections of 1878, when

more than 1,000,000 votes were polled and fourteen congressmen were elected. The next national convention of the party was held in Chicago, June 9–10, 1880, when James B. Weaver, of Iowa, was nominated for President, and B. J. Chambers, of Texas, for Vice-President. The whole number of votes then cast was 307,306. In 1884 the Greenback party united with an Anti-Monopolist party in nominating Benjamin F. Butler, of Massachusetts, for President, and in the election he received 133,825 votes. In succeeding Presidential campaigns the Greenback party had no candidates in the field, the bulk of its former adherents probably uniting with the PEOPLE'S PARTY (*q. v.*).

Greene, ALBERT GORTON, lawyer; born in Providence, R. I., Feb. 10, 1802; graduated at Brown University in 1820; admitted to the bar in 1823, and began practice in Providence; president of the Rhode Island Historical Society in 1854–68. He was the author of the poems *The Militia Muster; Old Grimes; Adelheid; The Baron's Last Banquet;* and *Canonchet.* He died in Cleveland, O., Jan. 4, 1868.

Greene, CHRISTOPHER, military officer; born in Warwick, R. I., May 12, 1737; was major in the "army of observation" authorized by the legislature of Rhode Island. He accompanied Arnold through the wilderness to Quebec in the fall of 1775, and was made prisoner in the attack on that city at the close of December. In October, 1776, he was put in command of a regiment, and was placed in charge of Fort Mercer, on the Delaware, which he gallantly defended the next year. He took part in Sullivan's campaign in Rhode Island in 1778, and in the spring of 1781 his quarters on the Croton River, Westchester co., N. Y., were surrounded by a party of loyalists, and he was slain May 13, 1781. For his defence of Fort Mercer, Congress voted him a sword in 1786, and it was presented to his eldest son.

Greene, FRANCIS VINTON, military officer; born in Providence, R. I., June 27, 1850; son of Gen. George Sears Greene; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1870, and commissioned a second lieutenant of the 4th Artillery. He served at Fort Foote, Md.; Fort Monroe, Va.; and at various posts in North Carolina till June 10, 1872, when he was transferred to the engineer corps, and served as assistant astronomer on the northern boundary of the United States till 1876. He was promoted to first lieutenant, Jan. 13, 1874. He was military attaché to the United States legation at St. Petersburg in 1877–79, and during the Russo-Turkish War was with the Russian army, being present at the battles of Shipka Pass, Plevna, the passage of the Balkans, Taskosen, Sofia, and Philopopolis. For bravery in several of these battles he received the Orders of St. Anne and St. Vladimir, and a campaign medal from the Emperor of Russia. In 1879–85 he was assistant to the engineer commissioner of the District of Columbia. In 1883 he was promoted to captain. In 1885 he became Professor of Practical Military Engineering at West Point; and Dec. 31, 1886, resigned from the army. When the war with Spain broke out in 1898 he was commissioned colonel of the 71st New York Regiment, but before this regiment embarked for Cuba he was sent to Manila with the rank of brigadier-general of volunteers, and had command of the United States forces in the battle of Malate, June 30, 1898, and in other actions around Manila in August. On Aug. 13, 1898, he was promoted to major-general. Returning from the Philippines in October he was placed in command of the 2d Division of the 7th Army Corps, and was on duty at Jacksonville (Fla.), Savannah (Ga.), and Havana. He resigned his commission Feb. 28, 1899; police commissioner of New York in 1903–04. He is the author of *The Russian Army and Its Campaigns in Turkey; Army Life in Russia; The Mississippi Campaign of the Civil War; Life of Nathanael Greene, Major-General in the Army of the Revolution;* etc.

Greene, GEORGE SEARS, military officer; born in Warwick, R. I., May 6, 1801; graduated at West Point in 1823. He resigned in 1836; became a civil engineer; and was employed in the construction of the High Bridge and Croton reservoir in New York City. In January, 1862, he was appointed colonel of the 60th New York Regiment, and commanded in Auger's division in Banks's corps. Having been appointed brigadier-general, he took com-

mand of Auger's division on the latter's promotion, and fought gallantly under Mansfield at Antietam. He was in the battles of Chancellorsville and Gettysburg. He was wounded at Wauhatchie in 1863; and was in eastern North Carolina early in 1865; was brevetted major-general of volunteers, March 13, 1865; and was mustered out of the service, April 30, 1866. As the oldest graduate of West Point, Congress authorized his reappointment to the regular army as a first lieutenant of artillery, Aug. 2, 1894, and he was retired on the 11th. He died in Morristown, N. J., Jan. 28, 1899.

Greene, GEORGE WASHINGTON, author; born in East Greenwich, R. I., April 8, 1811; was educated at Brown College; became Professor of History at Cornell University in 1872. His publications include *Historical View of the American Revolution; Nathanael Greene; An Examination of the Ninth Volume of Bancroft's History; The German Element in the War of American Independence; Short History of Rhode Island,* etc. He died in East Greenwich, R. I., Feb. 2, 1883.

Greene, NATHANAEL, military officer; born in Warwick, R. I., May 27, 1742; was the son of a member of the Society of Friends or Quakers. His education was confined to the English of the common school, and his youth was spent on the farm, in a mill, or in a blacksmith's shop. At the age of twenty years he studied law and afterwards military tactics. He was fond of books from his childhood. In 1770 he was elected a member of the Rhode Island legislature, wherein he held a seat until appointed to the command of the Southern army in 1780. His military proclivities caused him to be "disowned" by Friends, and he became a member of a military company. Three regiments of militia were organized in Rhode Island after the affair at Lexington, as an "army of observation," and these Greene, as provincial brigadier-general, led to Cambridge, where he was created a brigadier-general in the Continental army, June 22, 1775. Washington saw and appreciated his soldierly qualities, and in August, 1776, he was made a major-general. He commanded the left wing of the army at Trenton; was active in New Jersey; by a rapid movement saved the army from destruction at the Brandywine; was in the battle of Germantown, Oct. 4, 1777, and in March, 1778, accepted the office of quartermaster-general, but with a guarantee that he should not lose his right of command in action. This office he resigned in August, 1780. In the battle of Springfield, in June, 1780, he was conspicuous. During Washington's visit to Hartford (September, 1780) he was in command of the army, and was president of the court of inquiry in the case of Major André soon afterwards (see ANDRÉ, JOHN). Greene succeeded Gates in command of the Southern army, Oct. 14, 1780, which he found a mere skeleton, while a powerful enemy was in front of it. He took command of it at Charlotte, N. C., Dec. 4. By skill and energy he brought order and strength out of confusion, and soon taught Cornwallis that a better

NATHANAEL GREENE.

general than Gates confronted him. He made a famous retreat through Carolina into Virginia, and, turning back, fought the British army at Guildford Courthouse, N. C., March 15, 1781. Greene then pushed into South Carolina, and was defeated by Lord Rawdon in the battle of Hobkirk's Hill, April 25. Soon afterwards he besieged the fort of Ninety-six, and on Sept. 8 gained a victory at Eutaw Springs, S. C., for which Congress gave him thanks, a British standard, and a gold medal. Expelling the British from the Southern country, Greene returned to Rhode Island at the close of the war.

Congress presented him with two pieces of artillery. The State of Georgia gave him a fine plantation a few miles from Savannah, where he settled in the fall of the hero was settled early in March, 1901, when Col. Asa Bird Gardiner, acting in behalf of the Rhode Island Society of the Cincinnati, made an exploration of the

GREENE'S MEDAL.

1785, and died June 19, 1786. South Carolina also gave him a valuable tract of land. A monument dedicated jointly to Greene and Pulaski stands in the city of Savannah, and the State of Rhode Island has erected an equestrian statue of him at the national capital, executed by H. K. Browne. The doubt that had long existed as to the actual burial-place of cemeteries in Savannah, Ga., and, in the Jones vault of the long-abandoned colonial cemetery, found the plate that had been on General Greene's coffin and three metal buttons, with the American eagle on them, doubtless from the uniform in which it is known that General Greene was buried.

TRADING FORD ON THE CATAWBA.

While Greene and his army remained on the Santee Hills until late in the fall, his partisan corps, led by Marion, Sumter, Lee, and others, were driving the British forces from post to post, in the low country, and smiting Tory bands in every direction. The British finally evacuated all their interior stations and retired to Charleston, pursued almost to the edge of the city by the partisan troops. The main army occupied a position between

GENERAL GREENE CROSSING THE RIVER DAN.

that city and Jacksonboro, where the South Carolina legislature had resumed its sessions. Greene had failed to win victories in battle, but had fully accomplished the object of his campaign—namely, to liberate the Carolinas and Georgia from British rule. In the course of nine months he had recovered the three Southern States, and at the close of 1781 he had all the British troops below Virginia hemmed within the cities of Charleston and Savannah.

After the disaster at the Cowpens, Cornwallis placed his force in light marching order and started in pursuit of Morgan, hoping to intercept him before he could cross the Catawba River. The earl ordered all his stores and superfluous baggage to be burned, and his whole army was converted into light infantry

corps. The only wagons saved were those with hospital stores, salt, and ammunition, and four empty ones for sick and wounded. Sensible of his danger, Morgan, leaving seventy of his wounded under a flag of truce, crossed the Broad River immediately after the battle at the COWPENS (*q. v.*), and pushed for the Catawba. Cornwallis followed the next morning. Two hours before the van of the pursuers appeared, Morgan had passed the Catawba at Trading Ford, and before the British could begin the passage, heavy rains produced a sudden rise in the waters, and time was given to Morgan to send off his prisoners, and to refresh his weary troops. When Greene heard of the affair at the Cowpens, he put his troops in motion to join Morgan. Pressing forward with only a small guard, he joined Morgan two days after he had passed the Catawba (Jan. 29, 1781), and assumed, in person, the command of the division. And now one of the most remarkable military movements on record occurred. It was the retreat of the American army, under Greene, from the Catawba through North Carolina into Virginia. When the waters of the Catawba subsided, Cornwallis crossed and resumed his pursuit. He reached the right bank of the Yadkin (Feb. 3), just as the Americans were safely landed on the opposite shore. Again he was arrested by the sudden swelling of the river. Onward the flying patriots sped, and after a few hours Cornwallis was again in full pursuit. At Guilford Court-house Greene was joined (Feb. 7) by his main army from Cheraw, and all continued their flight towards Virginia, for they were not strong enough to give battle. After many hardships and narrow escapes, the Americans reached the Dan (Feb. 15, 1781), and crossed its rising waters into the friendly bosom of Halifax county, Va. When Cornwallis arrived, a few hours afterwards, the stream was so high and turbulent that he could not cross. There, mortified and disappointed, the earl abandoned the chase, and, moving sullenly southward through North Carolina, established his camp at Hillsboro.

Greene, SAMUEL DANA, naval officer; born in Cumberland, Md., Feb. 11, 1839; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1859. When the Civil War broke out he was assigned to the ironclad *Monitor,* and during her action with the *Merrimac* he directed every shot that was fired, until he took command in place of Lieutenant Worden, who had been wounded. He served on the *Monitor* till she sank near Cape Hatteras. He was promoted commander in 1872. He died in Portsmouth Navy-yard, N. H., Dec. 11, 1884.

Greene, ZECHARIAH, chaplain; born in Stafford, Conn., Jan. 11, 1760; was a soldier in the army of the Revolution; became a minister of the Gospel and a settled pastor on Long Island, and was a chaplain in the army in the War of 1812–15. He died in Hempstead, L. I., June 20, 1858.

Greener, RICHARD THEODORE, lawyer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 30, 1844; was the first negro graduate at Harvard College, where he finished with a brilliant record in 1870; became a lawyer in 1877; United States consul at Vladivostok, Siberia, in 1898. His addresses include *Charles Sumner, the Idealist, Statesman, and Scholar; Eulogy on the Life and Services of William Lloyd Garrison; The Intellectual Position of the Negro;* etc.

Greenhow, ROBERT, author; born in Richmond, Va., in 1800; graduated at William and Mary College in 1816; removed to California in 1850. He published *History of Tripoli,* and a *Report on the Discovery of the Northwest Coast of North America,* which was later enlarged and republished under the title of *History of Oregon and California.* He died in San Francisco, Cal., in 1854.

Greenland. See VINLAND, VOYAGES TO.

Greenleaf, JONATHAN, clergyman; born in Newburyport, Mass., Sept. 4, 1785. His publications include *Sketches of the Ecclesiastical History of Maine; History of New York Churches,* etc. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., April 24, 1865.

Greenleaf, MOSES, author; born in Newburyport, Mass., in 1778. He was the author of *Statistical View of the District of Maine,* and *Survey of the State of Maine.* He died in Williamsburg, Me., March 20, 1834.

Green Mountain Boys. Some of the settlers who had received grants of land from Governor Wentworth, of New Hamp-

shire, had crossed the Green Mountains and occupied lands on the shores of Lake Champlain. Emigration flowed over the mountains rapidly after the close of the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR (*q. v.*), and the present State of Vermont was largely covered by Wentworth's grants. The authorities of New York now proceeded to assert their claims to this territory under the charter given to the Duke of York. Acting-Governor Colden issued a proclamation to that effect, Dec. 28, 1763, to which Wentworth replied by a counter-proclamation. Then the matter, on Colden's application, was laid before the King in council. A royal order was issued, March 13, 1764, which declared the Connecticut River to be the eastern boundary of New York. The settlers did not suppose this decision would affect the titles to their lands, and they had no care about political jurisdiction. Land speculators caused the New York authorities to assert further claims that were unjust and impolitic. On the decision of able legal authority, they asserted the right of property in the soil, and orders were issued for the survey and sale of farms on the "Grants" in the possession of actual settlers, who had bought, paid for, and improved them. The settlers, disposed to be quiet, loyal subjects of New York, were converted into rebellious foes, determined and defiant.

A new and powerful opposition to the claims of New York was created, composed of the sinews and muskets and determined wills of the *people* of the "Grants," backed by New Hampshire, and, indeed, by all New England. New York had left them no alternative but the degrading one of leaving or repurchasing their possessions. The governor and council of New York summoned the people of the "Grants" to appear before them at Albany, with their deeds and other evidences of possession, within three months, failing in which it was declared that the claims of all delinquents would be rejected. No attention was paid to the summons. Meanwhile speculators had been purchasing from New York large tracts of these estates, and were preparing to take possession. The settlers sent an agent to England to lay their case before the King. He came back in 1767 with an order for the governor of New York to abstain from issuing any more patents for lands eastward of Lake Champlain. The order was not *ex post facto*, and the New York patentees proceeded to take possession of their purchased lands. The settlers aroused for resistance, led by a brave and determined commander from Connecticut, ETHAN ALLEN (*q. v.*). The men under his command called themselves the "Green Mountain Boys"; and for some years the New Hampshire Grants formed a theatre where all the elements of civil war, excepting actual carnage, were in active exercise. In 1774 Governor Tryon, of New York, issued a proclamation, ordering Ethan Allen, Seth Warner, and other leaders of the Green Mountain Boys, to surrender themselves within thirty days, or be subjected to the penalty of death. These leaders retorted by offering a reward for the arrest of the attorney-general of New York. The war for independence soon broke out and suspended the controversy. In that war the Green Mountain Boys took a conspicuous part.

Green Mountain State. A popular name of Vermont, the principal mountain range being the Green Mountains.

Greenough, HORATIO, sculptor; born in Boston, Mass., Sept. 6, 1805; graduated at Harvard in 1825; evinced a taste and talent for the cultivation of art in

HORATIO GREENOUGH.

his early youth; and soon after his graduation he went to Italy, where he remained about a year. On his return to

Boston in 1826 he modelled several busts, and then returned to Italy, making Florence his residence. Ever active, ever learning, and exceedingly industrious, he executed many pieces of sculpture of great merit. Among them was a group—*The Chanting Cherubs*—the first of the kind ever undertaken by an American sculptor. He made a colossal statue of Washington, half nude, in a sitting posture, for the Capitol at Washington, but it was so large that it could not be taken into the rotunda, its destined resting-place, and it occupies a position before the eastern front of the great building. He also executed a colossal group for the government — *The Rescue*—which occupied the artist about eight years. Besides numerous statues and groups, Mr. Greenough made busts of many of our statesmen. His *Life and Essays* were published in 1853 by his friend Henry T. Tuckerman. Mr. Greenough was greatly beloved by those who were favored with his personal acquaintance as a noble, generous, and kind-hearted man. He died in Summerville, Mass., Dec. 18, 1852.

Greenville, TREATY AT. After the successful campaigns of Gen. Anthony Wayne against the Northwestern Indian tribes in 1793–94, his army lay in winter quarters in Greenville, Darke co., O., and there, on Aug. 3, 1795, he concluded a treaty with several of the tribes—namely, Wyandottes, Delawares, Shawnees, Ottawas, Chippewas, Pottawatomies, Miamis, Eel River Indians, Weas, Piankshaws, Kickapoos, and Kaskaskias. There were 1,130 Indian participants in making the treaty. The principal chiefs present were Tarhe, Buckhongehelas, Black Hoof, Blue Jacket, and Little Turtle. The basis of the treaty was that hostilities should permanently cease and all prisoners be restored. The boundary-line between the United States and the lands of the several tribes was fixed.

Greenwood, GRACE. See LIPPINCOTT, SARA JANE.

Greer, JAMES AUGUSTIN, naval officer; born in Cincinnati, O., Feb. 28, 1833; joined the navy in January, 1848; commanded the iron-clad *Benton*, April 16, 1863, during the passage of the batteries at Vicksburg and in subsequent actions. In 1873 as commander of the *Tigress* he found the wreck of the *Polaris* at Littleton Island, North Greenland; was promoted rear-admiral in April, 1892; retired in February, 1895.

Gregg, DAVID, clergyman; born in Pittsburg, Pa., March 25, 1846; graduated at Washington and Jefferson College in 1865; and settled in Brooklyn, N. Y., in 1889. He is the author of *Makers of the American Republic*, etc.

Gregg, DAVID MCMURTRIE, military officer; born in Huntingdon, Pa., April 10, 1833; graduated at West Point in 1855, entering the dragoon service. He was in expeditions against the Indians in Washington Territory and the State of Oregon (1858–60), and was promoted to captain of cavalry in May, 1861. He was colonel of the 8th Pennsylvania Cavalry through the campaign in Virginia in 1862, and in November of that year was promoted to brigadier-general of volunteers. He commanded a division of cavalry in the Army of the Potomac from December, 1862, until February, 1865, when he resigned. In August, 1864, he was brevetted major-general of volunteers. He was appointed United States consul at Prague, Bohemia, in 1874.

Gregory, FRANCIS HOYT, naval officer; born in Norwalk, Conn., Oct. 9, 1789; entered the United States navy as midshipman in 1809; was made lieutenant in 1814, and captain in 1828. He served under Chauncey on Lake Ontario; was made a prisoner and confined in England eighteen months. In the war with Mexico he commanded the frigate *Raritan*. His last sea service was in command of the African squadron. During the Civil War he superintended the construction of iron-clads. On July 16, 1862, Captain Gregory was made a rear-admiral on the retired list. During the War of 1812, supplies for the British were constantly ascending the St. Lawrence. Chauncey ordered Lieutenant Gregory to capture some of them. With a small force he lay in ambush among the Thousand Islands in the middle of June, 1814. They were discovered, and a British gunboat was sent to attack them. They did not wait for the assault, but boldly dashed upon and captured their antagonist. She carried an 18-pounder carronade, and was manned by eighteen men. These were

FRANCIS H. GREGORY.

taken prisoners to Sackett's Harbor. This and other exploits, though appreciated at the time, were not then substantially rewarded, except by promotions; but, thirty years afterwards, Congress gave Gregory and his companion officers in the capture of the gunboat (Sailing-Masters Vaughan and Dixon) $3,000. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., Oct. 4, 1866.

Grenville, GEORGE, statesman; born in England, Oct. 14, 1712. A graduate of Cambridge University, a fine mathematician, and a student of law, he gave promise of much usefulness. Entering Parliament in 1741, he represented Buckinghamshire for twenty-nine years, until his death, Nov. 13, 1770. In 1762 he was made secretary of state; chancellor of the exchequer and first lord of the treasury in 1763; and in 1764 he proposed the famous STAMP ACT (*q. v.*). He was the best business man in the House of Commons, but his statesmanship was narrow. THOMAS GRENVILLE, who was one of the agents employed in negotiating the treaty of peace in 1783, was his son.

Grenville, SIR RICHARD, born in England in 1540; was a cousin of Sir Walter Raleigh. When a mere youth he served in the imperial army of Germany against the Turks, and on his return was appointed to a command in Ireland, and made sheriff of Cork. In 1571 he had a seat in Parliament and was knighted by Queen Elizabeth. The colonization schemes of his kinsman commanded his ardent approval, and on April 9, 1585, he sailed from Plymouth, England, in command of some ships fitted out by Raleigh, bearing 180 colonists and a full complement of seamen, for the coast of Virginia. Ralph Lane, a soldier of experience, accompanied him as governor of the colony. Thomas Harriott, a distinguished mathematician and astronomer, was with them as historian and naturalist (see HARRIOTT, THOMAS); also Thomas Cavendish, the eminent English navigator, who sailed around the earth. Grenville was more intent upon plunder and finding gold than planting a colony; the choice of him for commander was unfortunate. Sailing over the usual long southern route, they did not reach the coast of Florida until June, and as they went up the coast they encountered a storm off a point of land that nearly wrecked them, and they called it Cape Fear.

GEORGE GRENVILLE.

They finally landed on Roanoke Island, with Manteo, whom they had brought back from England, and who had been created Lord of Roanoke. Grenville sent him to the mainland to announce the arrival of the English, and Lane and his principal companions soon followed the dusky peer. For eight days they explored the country and were hospitably entertained everywhere. At an Indian village a silver cup was stolen from one of the Englishmen, and was not immediately restored on demand. Grenville ordered the whole town to be destroyed, with all the standing maize, or Indian corn, around it. This wanton act kindled a flame of hatred in the bosoms of the natives that could not be quenched. Not observing this, the commander left the colony and returned to England with his ships. These all became piratical cruisers on the seas, and entered the harbor of Plymouth on Sept. 18, laden with plunder from Spanish galleons.

Governor Lane also treated the natives cruelly, and they became greatly exasperated in spite of the soothing influence of Harriott, their benefactor. In mortal fear of the Indians, their provisions exhausted, and no ship arriving from England, they hailed with joy the appearance of Sir Francis Drake, who, returning from the West Indies, touched at Roanoke Island (see DRAKE, SIR FRANCIS). They gladly entered his ship and returned to England. About three weeks afterwards Grenville arrived there with three ships, laden with provisions. Leaving fifteen men on the deserted spot to keep possession of the country, Grenville again sailed for England. He afterwards, as vice-admiral, performed notable exploits against the Spaniards, but finally, in a battle with a large Spanish fleet off the Azores, in 1591, he was wounded, made prisoner, and soon afterwards died.

Gresham, WALTER QUINTON, jurist; born near Lanesville, Harrison co., Ind., March 17, 1832. He attended the State University of Indiana; and in 1854 was admitted to the bar and began the practice of law. He had served in the legislature when the Civil War broke out. As colonel of the 52d Indiana Volunteers he served creditably in the Western army. After the war he was defeated as Republican candidate for Congressman, and from 1869 to 1882 held the post of United States district judge in Indiana. In President Arthur's administration Gresham was Postmaster-General from 1882 to 1884, and Secretary of the Treasury from September to December, 1884. He then became United States circuit judge, and held that post until 1893. Meanwhile he was in 1888 a prominent candidate for the Republican nomination to the Presidency, and in 1892 he declined the Populist invitation to stand for the same office. His views on public questions had somewhat changed, so that his appointment by President Cleveland to

WALTER QUINTON GRESHAM.

the office of Secretary of State was not entirely a surprise. He held this office at the time of his death, in Washington, May 28, 1895.

Grey, CHARLES, EARL, military officer; born in England Oct. 23, 1729; was aide-de-camp to Wolfe, at Quebec, in 1759; was commissioned lieutenant-colonel in 1761; and, as colonel, accompanied General Howe to Boston in 1775, who gave him the rank of major-general. He led the party that surprised General Wayne in the night. He was an active commander in the battle of GERMANTOWN (*q. v.*) and as a marauder on the New England coast in the fall of 1778. He surprised and cut in pieces Baylor's dragoons at Tappan. For these and other services in America he was made a lieutenant-general in 1783. He became a gen-

eral in 1795; was elevated to the peerage in 1801; and was the father of the celebrated English statesman of the same name. He died Nov. 14, 1807.

Greytown, the only seaport of Nicaragua; at the mouth of the San Juan River. It is locally known as San Juan del Norte. The town has considerable trade, which, however, was for many years held in check by the choking up of the harbor. It is the Atlantic terminus of the projected Nicaragua Canal, and, as such, was neutralized by the CLAYTON-BULWER TREATY (*q. v.*). Considerable work has been done towards improving the harbor under the direction of the United States government. On June 13, 1854, the former town was bombarded and destroyed by the United States naval ship *Cyane* under command of GEORGE N. HOLLINS (*q. v.*).

Gridley, CHARLES VERNON, naval officer; born in Logansport, Ind., in 1845. He was appointed an acting midshipman in the United States navy in 1860; was promoted to midshipman July 16, 1862; lieutenant, Feb. 21, 1867; lieutenant-commander, March 12, 1868; commander, March 10, 1882; and captain, March 4, 1897; and was assigned to the Asiatic squadron. Upon his arrival at Hong-Kong, China, he was given command of the protected cruiser *Olympia*, the flag-

CHARLES VERNON GRIDLEY.

ship. Just before the battle of Manila Bay, on May 1, 1898, Captain Gridley took his place in the conning tower of the *Olympia*, with Commodore Dewey on the bridge. When the American fleet drew near to the Spanish vessels, Commodore Dewey gave the laconic order: "You may fire when you are ready, Mr. Gridley," and almost immediately the battle was opened. Captain Gridley managed his ship superbly throughout the fight, and fired the broadside which destroyed the Spanish flag-ship. During the battle he was very ill, but insisted on commanding his ship. Soon afterwards his sickness grew worse, and he died in Kobe, Japan, June 4, 1898, while on his way home.

Gridley, RICHARD, military officer; born in Boston, Mass., Jan. 3, 1711; chief engineer in the siege of Louisburg, in 1745. He entered the service, as colonel of infantry, in 1755; was in the expedition to Crown Point, under General Winslow; planned the fortifications at Lake George; served under Amherst, and was with Wolfe at Quebec. He retired as a British officer on half-pay for life. Was appointed chief engineer of the army that gathered at Cambridge; planned the works on Bunker Hill and Dorchester Heights; and was in the battle there, in which he was wounded. In 1775 he was commissioned a major-general. He was commander of the Continental artillery until superseded by Knox. He died in Stoughton, Mass., June 20, 1796.

Grier, ROBERT CASPER, jurist; born in Cumberland county, Pa., March 5, 1794; graduated at Dickinson in 1812; justice of the United States Supreme Court, 1846–70. He died in Philadelphia, Sept. 26, 1870.

Grierson, BENJAMIN HENRY, military officer; born in Pittsburg, Pa., July 8, 1826; went on the staff of General Prentiss when the Civil War broke out, and became an active cavalry officer. Some of Grant's cavalry, which he had left in Tennessee, were making extensive and destructive raids while he was operating against Vicksburg. On April 17 Colonel Grierson, then commanding the 6th Illinois Cavalry, left La Grange, Tenn., with his own and two other regiments, and, descending the Mississippi, swept rapidly through the rich western portion of that State. These horsemen were scattered in several detachments, striking Confederate forces here and there, breaking up rail-

ways and bridges, severing telegraph wires, wasting public property, and as much as possible diminishing the means of transportation of the Confederates in their efforts to help their army at Vicksburg. Finally, on May 2, having pene-

BENJAMIN HENRY GRIERSON.

trated Louisiana, this great raid ceased, when Grierson, with his wearied troops and worn-out horses, entered Baton Rouge, where some of General Banks's troops were stationed. In the space of sixteen days he had ridden 600 miles, in a succession of forced marches, often in drenching rain, and sometimes without rest for forty-eight hours, through a hostile country, over ways most difficult to travel, fighting men and destroying property. His troops had killed and wounded about 100 Confederates, captured and paroled full 500, destroyed 3,000 stand of arms, and inflicted a loss on their foes of property valued at $6,000,000. Grierson's loss was twenty-seven men and a number of horses. During the twenty-eight hours preceding the arrival of the raiders at Baton Rouge they had travelled 76 miles, engaged in four skirmishes, and forded the Comite River. Grierson declared that he found the Confederacy to be only a shell. This was in 1863. He was made major-general of volunteers in May, 1865, and for his services in the war was brevetted major-general, United States army, in March, 1867. He had been commissioned lieutenant-colonel of United States cavalry in July, 1866. From 1868 till 1873 he was in command of the Indian Territory district, and was actively employed in campaigns against hostile Indians; and in 1873–81 was similarly engaged in western Texas and New Mexico. In 1886 he became commander of the District of New Mexico, and in 1890 he was retired with the rank of brigadier-general in the regular army.

Griffin, Appleton Prentiss Clark, author; born in Wilton, N. H.; became assistant librarian of the Library of Congress in 1897. His publications include *Discovery of the Mississippi; Index of Articles upon American Local History in Collections,* etc.

Griffin, Charles, military officer; born in Licking county, O., in 1826; graduated at West Point in 1847, and entered the artillery. He was made captain of artillery in April, 1861, and with his battery fought bravely in the battle of Bull Run. He was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers in July, 1862; served under General Potter in the campaign against Richmond, and was active in the Army of the Potomac until the surrender of Lee at Appomattox Court-house, where, as commander of the 5th Corps, he received the arms and colors of the Army of Northern Virginia. In March, 1865, he was brevetted major-general, United States army, and received other brevets for "meritorious services during the Rebellion." In the winter of 1865–66 he was placed in command of the Department of Texas, with headquarters in Galveston. On Sept. 5, 1867, when that city was scourged with yellow fever, he was given a temporary command in New Orleans, but he refused to leave his post, and died of the fever on the 15th.

Griffin, Cyrus, jurist; born in Virginia in 1749; was educated in England; was connected by marriage there with a noble family; and when the Revolution broke out he espoused the cause of the patriots. From 1778 to 1781, and in 1787–88, he was a member of the Continental Congress, and in the latter year its president.

He was commissioner to the Creek nation in 1789, and from that year until his death in Yorktown, Va., Dec. 14, 1810, he was judge of the United States District Court in Virginia.

Griffin, SIMON GODDELL, military officer; born in Nelson, N. H., Aug. 9, 1824; began law practice in Concord in 1860; served with marked distinction through the Civil War; was commissioned brigadier-general of volunteers in 1864; and on June 16 of that year led an assault at Petersburg, capturing 1,000 Confederates and their works. Subsequently he was brevetted major-general of volunteers. He died in Keene, N. H., Jan. 14, 1902.

Griffin, THE, the vessel of La Salle, on Lake Erie; built early in 1667, at the mouth of Cayuga Creek, not far below the site of Buffalo, and near the foot of Squaw Island. She was armed with a battery of seven small cannon and some muskets, and floated a flag bearing the device of an eagle. In August, the same year, she sailed for the western end of Lake Erie. This was the beginning of the commerce on the Great Lakes.

Griggs, JOHN WILLIAM, lawyer; born in Newton, N. J., July 10, 1849; graduated at Lafayette College in 1868; admitted to the bar in 1871; and began practice in Paterson, N. J. In 1876–77 he was a member of the New Jersey House of Representatives, and in 1882–88 of the State Senate, of which he was president in 1886. He was elected governor of New Jersey in November, 1895, and served till January, 1898, when he was appointed Attorney-General of the United States. In March, 1901, he resigned this office to resume private practice.

Grijalva, JUAN DE, adventurer; born in Cuellar, Spain, near the close of the fifteenth century. His uncle, DIEGO VELASQUEZ (*q. v.*), the first governor of Cuba, sent him, in command of four vessels, to complete the discoveries of Cordova. He sailed from Santiago, Cuba, in the spring of 1518. He cruised along the peninsula of Yucatan as far as the region of the Panuco, where he held friendly communication with the Aztecs, the subjects of Montezuma. Grijalva afterwards settled in Nicaragua, where he was killed by the natives, Jan. 21, 1527. He was the discoverer of Mexico.

Grimke, JOHN FAUCHERAUD, jurist; born in South Carolina, Dec. 16, 1752; studied law in London, England; was one of the thirty Americans who petitioned the King to stay the acts of Parliament infringing on American rights. He published *Revised Edition of the Laws of South Carolina to 1789; Public Law of South Carolina; Duty of Justices of the Peace;* etc. He died in Long Branch, N. J., Aug. 9, 1819.

Grimshaw, WILLIAM, author; born in Greencastle, Ireland, in 1782; came to the United States in 1815; settled in Philadelphia. He was author of the *American Chesterfield;* a school history of the United States, etc., and editor of a revised edition of Ramsey's *Life of Washington.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., in 1852.

Griswold, FORT, a defensive work on the east bank of the Thames River in Connecticut. On Sept. 6, 1781, while defended by Col. William Ledyard and 150 men, it was captured by the British, who, under Benedict Arnold, acted treacherously after the surrender, Colonel Ledyard being killed when delivering his sword. No quarter was given, and only twenty-six men escaped.

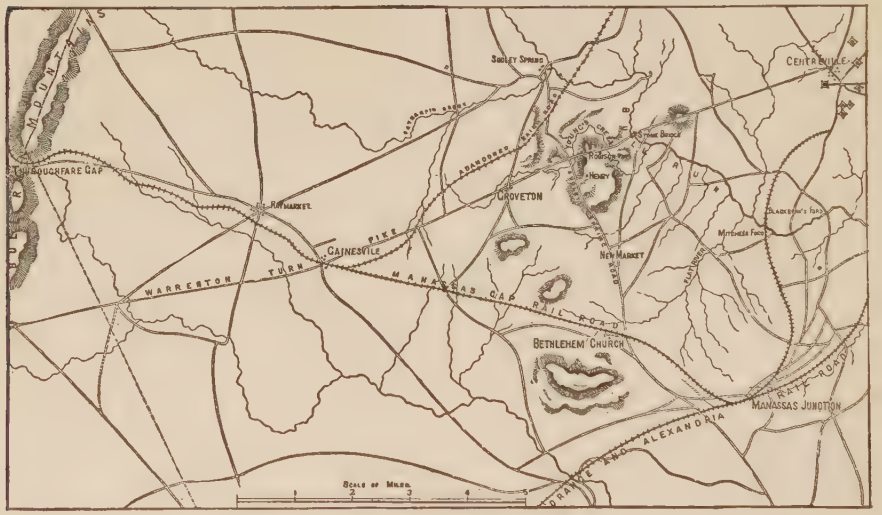
Groesbeck, WILLIAM SLOCOMB, lawyer; born in New York City, July 24, 1815; received an academic education; admitted to the bar, and practised in Cincinnati, O.; member of Congress in 1857–59; State Senator in 1862; and one of the counsel for President Johnson in the impeachment trial of 1868. He died in Cincinnati, O., July 7, 1897.

Grover, CUVIER, military officer; born in Bethel, Me., July 24, 1829; graduated at West Point in 1850; was made brigadier-general of volunteers in April, 1861; and commanded a brigade in Heintzelman's corps in the Army of the Potomac. He was in the Shenandoah campaign in 1864; and from January till June, 1865, was in command of the District of Savannah. General Grover was brevetted brigadier-general and major-general in the regular army, March 13, 1865; was promoted to colonel of the 1st Cavalry in 1875, which command he held till his death in Atlantic City, N. J., June 6, 1885.

Groveton, BATTLE OF. After the battle at CEDAR MOUNTAIN (*q. v.*), Pope

took position with his army along the line of the Rapidan, where he was reinforced by troops from North Carolina, under Burnside and Stevens. The Confederates now concentrated their forces for a dash on Washington in heavy columns. Halleck, perceiving possible danger to the capital, issued a positive order to McClellan, Aug. 3, 1862, for the immediate transfer of the Army of the Potomac from the James River to the vicinity of Washington. The commander of that army instructed Halleck that the "true defence of Washington" was "on the banks of the James." The order was at once repeated, but it was twenty days after it was first given before the transfer was accomplished. Meanwhile, General Lee having massed a heavy force on Pope's front, the latter had retired behind the forks of the Rappahannock. Lee pushed forward to that river with heavy columns, and on Aug. 20–21 a severe artillery duel was fought above Fredericksburg, for 7 or 8 miles along that stream. Finding they could not force a passage of the river, the Confederates took a circuitous route towards the mountains to flank the Nationals, when Pope made movements to thwart them.

But danger to the capital increased every hour. Troops were coming with tardy pace from the Peninsula, and on the 25th, when those of Franklin, Heintzelman, and Porter had arrived, Pope's army, somewhat scattered, numbered about 60,000 men. Jackson crossed the Rappahannock, marched swiftly over Bull Run Mountain, through Thoroughfare Gap, to Gainesville (Aug. 26), where he was joined by Stuart, with two cavalry brigades. At twilight Stuart was at Bristow Station, in Pope's rear, and between the latter and Washington. He and Banks had no suspicion of this movement. Jackson knew the perils of his position, and the necessity for quick action. He sent Stuart forward to Manassas Junction before daylight (Aug. 27), to break up Pope's communications with the capital. The alarm instantly spread among the Nationals. Jackson, with his whole force, pressed to the Junction, and Pope attempted to capture him before he should form a junction with Longstreet, at the head of Lee's column, then approaching. Pope ordered McDowell, with Sigel and the troops of Reynolds, to hasten to Gainesville to intercept Longstreet. Reno was ordered to move on a different road, and support McDowell, while Pope moved along the railway towards Manassas Junction with



MAP OF THE OPERATIONS AT GROVETON.

Hooker's division. He directed General Porter to remain at Warrenton Station until Banks should arrive there to hold it, and then hasten to Gainesville. McDowell . reached Gainesville without interruption; but near Bristow Station, Hooker encountered General Ewell, and in the struggle that ensued each lost about 300 men.

The latter hastened towards Manassas, but Hooker's ammunition failing, he was unable to pursue. Pope now ordered a rapid movement upon the Confederates at the Junction, while General Kearny was directed to make his way to Bristow Station, where Jackson might mass his troops and attempt to turn the National right. This movement was made early on the morning of Aug. 28, 1862. Porter was ordered to move towards Bristow Station at one o'clock, but did not march before daylight, at which time Jackson had taken another direction. He destroyed an immense amount of captured stores, and hastened to join Longstreet, then approaching through Thoroughfare Gap. Some of Pope's troops failed to execute orders. The latter arrived at the Junction just after Jackson had left, and pushed all of his available forces upon Centreville in pursuit. Kearny drew Jackson's rear-guard out of Centreville late in the afternoon (Aug. 28), and the forces of the Confederates were turned towards Thoroughfare Gap, from which was coming their help. Towards evening the troops under Ewell and Taliaferro encamped near the battle-ground of Bull Run nearly a year before. King's division of McDowell's corps was in close pursuit, and when they had reached a point desired by the watching Confederates, the latter fell fiercely upon them. A sanguinary battle ensued. The brunt of it was borne by Gibbons's brigade, supported by that of General Doubleday. The struggle continued until dark. The losses were heavy, and in that battle General Ewell lost a leg.

Pope, at Centreville, now attempted to crush Jackson before Longstreet could join him. McDowell and King were directed to maintain their position, while Kearny should follow Jackson closely at one o'clock in the morning (Aug. 29), and Porter (whom he believed to be at the Junction) to move upon Centreville at dawn. Before these movements could be executed, Longstreet and Jackson had formed a partial junction. Near the entrance to Thoroughfare Gap, through which Longstreet had marched, there was

SOLDIERS' MONUMENT AT GROVETON.

a sharp engagement, which ended at twilight. Longstreet was held in check for a while by Ricketts's division, and the cavalry of Buford and Bayard, which had fought the battle. Early the next morning (Aug. 29), Ricketts fled to Gainesville, closely pursued. Pope's army was now scattered and somewhat confused. Lee's whole army, now combined, pressed forward. Pope ordered Sigel, supported by Reynolds, to advance from Groveton and attack Jackson on wooded heights near. He ordered Heintzelman, with the divisions of Hooker and Kearny, towards Gainesville, to be followed by Reno, while Porter, with his own corps and King's division, was to move upon the road to Gainesville from Manassas, for the turning of Jackson's flank on the Warrenton pike, and to fall heavily on his rear. Lee was then approaching along that pike, and Jackson determined to hold his advantageous position, at all hazards, until the main army should arrive.

At five o'clock in the morning, Sigel, with the divisions of Schurz, Schenck, and

Milroy, advanced to attack Jackson. A battle began at seven o'clock, and continued with great fury until ten, Sigel constantly advancing, while it was evident that Jackson had been reinforced. It was so. Longstreet, with the vanguard of Lee's whole army, which had been streaming through Thoroughfare Gap all the morning unopposed, had now reached the field of action. Sigel maintained his ground until noon, when Kearny's division arrived, and took position on Sigel's right. Reynolds and Reno also came up, followed soon afterwards by Hooker. Then the Nationals outnumbered the Confederates, and for some hours the battle assumed the aspect of a series of skirmishes. Pope ordered Porter into action, and other troops were directed to support him; but Porter, as he alleged, did not receive the order until dusk, and the brunt of the battle fell upon his intended supports. It was desperately and gallantly fought on both sides. Jackson was hourly reinforced by fresh divisions of Lee's army. Soon after dusk this sharp and important battle at Groveton ended, without victory on either side, and each having lost about 7,000 men. Pope's entire army (excepting Banks's forces at Bristow Station) and a part of McClellan's were in this action. Pope's effective men had been reduced in numbers by various causes, and it was estimated that his army fit for service did not exceed 40,000 men.

Grow, GALUSHA AARON, statesman; born in Eastford, Conn., Aug. 31, 1824; graduated at Amherst College in 1844; admitted to the bar of Pennsylvania in 1847; elected a member of Congress in 1851; served as speaker from 1861 to 1863, when his term of office expired. He continued to take an active part in politics for many years, and was re-elected to Congress as member-at-large from the State of Pennsylvania in 1894.

Grundy, FELIX, statesman; born in Berkeley county, Va., Sept. 11, 1777; removed to Tennessee in 1808; member of Congress, 1811–14; United States Senator, 1829–38; Attorney-General of the United States, 1838–39; United States Senator, 1839–40. He died in Nashville, Tenn., Dec. 19, 1840.

Guadalupe-Hidalgo, TREATY OF, Feb. 2, 1848, between the United States and Mexico, by which the latter ceded to the United States all the country north of the Rio Grande to the point where that river strikes the southern boundary of New Mexico, and westward to one league south of San Diego, Cal.

Guam, the chief island in the Ladrone group, in the Pacific. During the war with Spain it was seized by the United States naval authorities, June 21, 1898; and by the treaty of peace was ceded to the United States. On Feb. 1, 1899, formal American possession was taken, Capt. Richard P. Leary, U. S. N., becoming the first governor. The United States government has established a naval and coaling station in the harbor of San Luis d'Apra. There is to be a breakwater, a coaling wharf and repair shops, and shore batteries for protection. On Nov. 13, 1900, a typhoon of unprecedented violence swept over Guam, causing the wreck of the United States auxiliary cruiser *Yosemite*. Although the vessel had two anchors down the terrific wind drove her a mile across the harbor of San Luis d'Apra, where she

struck a reef and was then driven to sea, and sank Nov. 15. A launch containing five men had been sent to find shelter, but it capsized and the occupants

were drowned. The remainder of the crew, numbering 173, were rescued on the afternoon of Nov. 15 by the United States collier *Justin*. There was also a loss of more than thirty natives upon the island. The principal city of Guam is AGANA (*q. v.*).

Guanica, a seaport in the southwestern corner of the province of Ponce, about 15 miles from the city of Ponce, Porto Rico. In the early part of the war between the United States and Spain (1898), when it became known that a military expedition under GEN. NELSON A. MILES (*q. v.*) was to be sent to Porto Rico, it was reported with apparent official sanction that the objective point was San Juan, which Admiral Sampson would cover with the guns of his fleet while a landing was being made by the troops. This, however, was a ruse to mislead the Spanish spies in New York and Washington, and while the Spaniards in San Juan were completing preparations to resist invasion, General Miles quietly debarked his army at Guanica on July 25, opposed only by a small force of Spaniards in a block-house. On the following day the Americans advanced to Yauco, and captured the railroad leading into Ponce. By July 29 all of the Americans, numbering 16,973 officers and men, had landed and concentrated in the neighborhood of Ponce for a forward movement against SAN JUAN (*q. v.*).

Guantanamo Bay, a harbor lying 38 miles east of Santiago, Cuba; one of the best on the southern coast. The town and fort of the same name are located about 5 miles back of the bay. Just outside of this bay United States war-ships made an attempt in the early days of the war of 1898 to cut the very important cables which ran from Santiago to Guantanamo and thence to Spain. Had this attempt succeeded Cuba would have been entirely isolated from the mother-country. On May 18, the *St. Louis* and the tug *Wampatuck* approached the mouth of the harbor, but the heavy fire from the Spanish batteries and the gunboat in the bay forced the *Wampatuck* to retire after grappling one of the cables within 800 yards of the shore. On the hills before mentioned the Spaniards had constructed earthworks and rifle-pits commanding the entrance of the bay. On June 10, 1898, the United States cruiser *Marblehead* was sent to shell the bluffs. Captain McCalla found this task easy, two dozen shells sufficing to drive the enemy away. On the following day the transport *Panther* landed 600 marines at CAIMANERA (*q. v.*). In 1903 an agreement was signed between the United States and Cuba for the cession of territory on Guantanamo bay for the establishment of a United States naval station. See LAS GUASIMAS.

Guayamo, a town about 40 miles east of Ponce, in the district of Guayamo, Porto Rico. Early in August, 1898, General Brooke, of the United States army, decided to capture the town and make it a base of operations, as it was the only town of importance on the main road leading to the military road between Ponce and San Juan. On the morning of Aug. 5 General Hains, with the 4th Ohio and the 3d Illinois regiments, under the orders of General Brooke, moved against the place. There was no sign of the enemy until the advance entered a cut leading up a steep hill about a mile from the town, when a hail of Spanish bullets whistled over their heads. Owing to their small force, the advance were compelled to retire. As soon as this firing was heard the main body of American troops hurried forward and up the hill-sides. At a short turn in the road the Spaniards had built a barricade, but a flanking movement forced them to retire. For about a half-hour the Americans pushed forward, meeting with little resistance. The enemy then rallied, made a stand, and wounded three Americans. Soon, however, the Spaniards were driven from their position. At 11 A.M. General Hains entered the town, and shortly afterwards a flag of truce was raised and Guayamo surrendered. The inhabitants greeted the Americans with manifestations of joy and friendliness. At about the same time the Spaniards in the hills began to bombard the town. This action lasted about a half-hour, when the Americans sent six dynamite shells into the midst of the enemy and nothing more was heard from them. The entire action lasted about five hours and was notable for its slight casualties. The town of Guayamo has a population of 16,000.

Guerber, HELENE ADELINE, author. Her publications include *Story of the Thirteen Colonies; Story of the Great Republic;* etc.

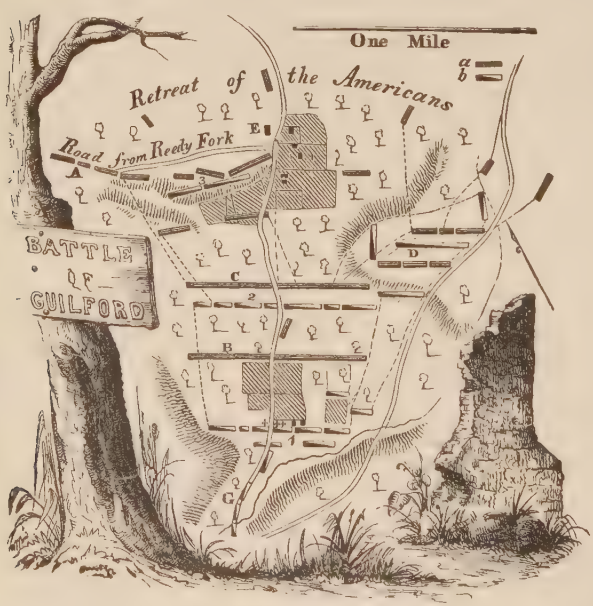
Guerillas. The name guerilla was first given to bands of irregular soldiery, or armed peasants, in Spain, who harassed Napoleon's armies during the Peninsular War, in 1808–14. The name is from the Spanish and means "a little war." One of the bands, led by the notorious General Mina, joined Wellington, and after having undergone a course of discipline, did good service as regular troops. From Spain the name guerilla was brought to Central America, and thence to the United States. Guerilla bands of Mexico and Texas were a source of great annoyance during the Mexican War. In the Civil War guerillas, or "partisan rangers," as they were called, were commanded by officers duly commissioned by the Confederate President for such service. By an act of the Confederate Congress, passed April 21, 1862, it was provided that these "partisan rangers" should receive the full pay of regular soldiers and be paid the full value of all arms and munitions of war captured by them. This act was repealed Feb. 15, 1864, and provision made for uniting all the ranger bands under the discipline of the regular army.

Guernsey, ALFRED HUDSON, journalist; born in Brandon, Vt., May 12, 1818; connected with *Harper's Magazine* from 1850 to 1869 as contributor and editor; associate editor of the *American Cyclopædia.* With Henry M. Alden he wrote *Harper's Pictorial History of the Great Rebellion.* He died in New York, Jan. 17, 1902.

Gueslis, FRANCIS VAILLANT DE. See JESUIT MISSIONS.

Guild, REUBEN ALDRIDGE, author; born in West Dedham, Mass., May 4, 1822; graduated at Brown University in 1847, and served there as librarian for forty-six years. His publications include *Life and Journals of Chaplain Smith; Life of Roger Williams; Early History of Brown University; Documentary History of Brown University;* etc. He died in 1899.

Guilford, BATTLE OF. Resting his troops a while in Virginia, after his race with Cornwallis, GEN. NATHANAEL GREENE (*q. v.*) recrossed the Dan into North Carolina; and as he moved cautiously forward to foil the efforts of Cornwallis to embody the Tories of that State, he found himself, March 1, 1781, at the head of about 5,000 troops in good spirits. Feeling strong enough to cope with Cornwallis, he sought an engagement with him; and on the 15th they met near Guilford Court-house, where they fiercely contended for the mastery. The battle-field was about 5 miles from the (present) village of Greensboro, in Guilford county, N. C. Greene had encamped within 8 miles of the earl, on the evening of the 14th, and on the morning of the 15th he moved against his enemy. The latter was prepared



THE BATTLE OF GUILFORD

G. British advancing; 1. First position of British; B. Front line of Americans—North Carolinians; C. Second line of Americans; A. American right wing; E. Maryland and Virginia Continentals; 2. Second position of British; D. Fight between Hessians and Americans; 3. Third position of British.

to receive him. Greene had disposed his army in three positions—the first at the edge of woods on a great hill; the second in the forest, 300 yards in the rear; and the third a little more than one-fourth of a mile in the rear of the second. The first line was composed of North Carolina militia, mostly raw recruits, nearly 1,100 in number, commanded by Generals Butler and Eaton. These had two cannon, with Washington's cavalry on the right wing, and Lee's legion, with Campbell's militia, on the left wing. The whole were commanded by Greene in person.

THE BATTLE-FIELD OF GUILFORD.

The British appeared in front of the Americans at a little past noon in full force, the right commanded by General Leslie, and the left by Colonel Webster. Under cover of a severe cannonade the British advanced, delivering a volley of musketry as they approached, and then, with a shout, rushed forward with fixed bayonets. The American militia fled after the firing of one or two volleys, when the victors pressed on and attacked the second line, composed of Virginia militia under Generals Stevens and Lawson. After a stout resistance they, too, fell back upon the third line. Up to this time the battle had been carried on, on the part of the British, by their right, under Leslie. Now Webster, with the left, pressed forward with the right division in the face of a terrible storm of grape-shot and musketry. Nearly the whole of the two armies were now in conflict. The battle lasted almost two hours, when Greene, ignorant of the heavy losses sustained by the British, ordered a retreat, leaving his cannon behind and Cornwallis master of the field. It was one of the most sanguinary battles of the war. The Americans lost about 400 killed and wounded, besides 1,000 who deserted to their homes. The British loss was about 600. Among the fatally wounded was Colonel Webster. That battle ended British domination in North Carolina. The army of Cornwallis was too much shattered for him to maintain the advantage he had gained. After issuing a proclamation boasting of his victory, calling upon the Tories to rally to his standard, and offering pardon to the "rebels" who should submit, he moved with his whole army towards Wilmington, near the seaboard. The news of the battle produced a profound sensation in England. "Another such victory," said Charles J. Fox, in the House of Commons, "will ruin the British army;" and he moved, June 12, 1781, to recommend the ministers to conclude a peace with the Americans at once. William Pitt (son of the great Chatham) spoke of the war against the Americans with great severity.

Guillotine, Song of the. During the prevailing madness occasioned by the French Revolution of 1793, Thelwall, a celebrated English Jacobin, wrote and put forth the following song, adapted to the air of "God Save the King," calling it "God Save the Guillotine":

"God save the guillotine!
Till England's king and queen
Her power shall prove;
Till each anointed knob
Affords a clipping job,
Let no rude halter rob
The guillotine.

"France, let thy trumpet sound—
Tell all the world around
How Capet fell;
And when great George's poll
Shall in the basket roll,
Let mercy then control
The guillotine.

"When all the sceptred crew
Have paid their homage due
The guillotine,
Let Freedom's flag advance
Till all the world, like France,
O'er tyrants' graves shall dance,
And peace begin."

Joel Barlow, an American, who had become a radical French Democrat, was invited to a Jacobin festival at Hamburg, on July 4, 1793, where he furnished Thelwall's song, at dinner, and it was sung, with great applause. It was supposed to have been written by Barlow, who, on his return, was coldly received in New England, not only on that account, but because he had assisted Paine in publishing his *Age of Reason*. The *Song of the Guillotine* was republished in Boston. See Barlow, Joel.

Guiteau, Charles J., assassin; born about 1840, of French-Canadian parents; became an inconspicuous lawyer in Chicago. When James A. Garfield was elected President (1880), Guiteau went to Washington to seek the office of American consul at Marseilles, but was unsuccessful. This failure, along with the political antagonism between Garfield and Roscoe Conkling, greatly incensed him, and on July 2, 1881, in the waiting-room of the Baltimore and Potomac Railroad depot, in Washington, he fired two shots at the President, one of which took effect. The President lingered until Sept. 19, when he died at Elberon, N. J. Immediately after the shooting, Guiteau was arrested, and letters found in his pockets made it evident that he had premeditated the murder of the President. On Aug. 7 he attempted to murder William McGill, one of his jail guards, and on Sept. 13, Sergt. John Mason, another guard, fired at him. On Oct. 7 he was indicted for murder, and on Nov. 14 was placed on trial before Judge Cox, in the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia. The prosecution was conducted by United States District Attorney George B. Corkhill,

CHARLES J. GUITEAU.

while the counsel for the defence was George M. Scoville. The trial continued through the remainder of the year and to the latter part of January, 1882. During the last month, ex-Judge John K. Porter became associated with the prosecution, and on Jan. 23 began the final address to the jury. On Jan. 25 the jury was charged by Judge Cox, and within an hour a verdict of guilty of murder in the first degree was agreed upon. During most of the trial Guiteau was violent and abusive, and was frequently threatened by Judge Cox with removal from the court-room. In accordance with the verdict and its consequent sentence, Guiteau was hanged in the district jail, June 30, 1882.

Gunboats. By the act of Congress approved April 21, 1806, provision was made for the construction of fifty gunboats. President Jefferson had imbibed very strong prejudice in favor of such vessels. A flotilla of them, obtained from Naples,

GUNBOATS IN 1807.

had been used effectively in the war with Tripoli in 1804; and they were favorites in the service, because they afforded commands for enterprising young officers. A few had been built in the United States in 1805, their chief contemplated use being the defence and protection of harbors and rivers. Then was inaugurated the "gunboat policy" of the government, so much discussed for three or four years afterwards. Towards the close of the year (1806) the President announced that the fifty gunboats were so far advanced that they might be put into commission the following year. In December, 1807, the President was authorized to procure 188 additional gunboats, by purchase or construction, making in all 257. These gunboats were variously rigged as seen in the engraving. Some carried a single swivel amidship, and others one in the bow, and sometimes one in the stern. Jefferson, who had urged the construction of these little vessels of war, appears to have conceived the idea that such a flotilla should merely be kept in readiness, properly distributed along the coast, but not actually manned until necessity should call for their being put into commission. For this proposition he was ridiculed not only by naval officers, but among the people at large, and he was denounced by the

FOOTE'S GUNBOAT FLOTILLA IN 1862.

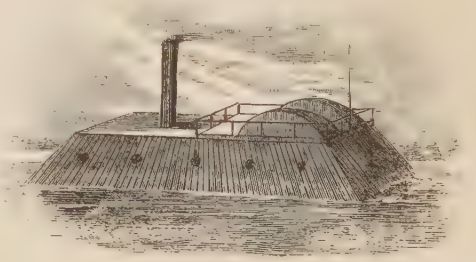
opposition as "a dreaming philosopher," and the whole gunboat system as "wasteful imbecility called by the name of economy."

Quite different were the gunboats that performed most efficient service on the Western rivers during the Civil War. They were largely covered with plates of iron, moved by steam, and armed with very heavy guns. Foote commanded the first flotilla of gunboats on the Mississippi River. Some of them were wooden structures only, while others were of iron or covered with heavy plates of iron. The *Manassas* had no appearance of a boat, but looked like a huge water-monster. The *Louisiana* showed another form of boat. Indeed, it was a floating battery movable by steam. This was a Confederate structure. The *New Era* was another form. It was two boats covered by one common deck, and all heavily armored.

THE NEW ERA.

When the Confederate line across Kentucky had been broken, the national government determined to concentrate the forces of Halleck and Buell for a great forward movement to push the Confederates towards the Gulf of Mexico, according to Frémont's plan (see FRÉMONT, JOHN CHARLES). Twelve gunboats (some of them iron-plated) had been constructed at St. Louis and Cairo, and at the close of January, 1862, these were armed with 126 heavy guns and some light artillery, and were placed under the command of FLAG-OFFICER A. H. FOOTE (*q. v.*), of the navy.

Grant withdrew his forces from the bayous above Vicksburg, and sent them down the west side of the Mississippi, to cross and gain the rear of Vicksburg, on the line of the Black River. Porter prepared, at the same time, to run by the batteries at Vicksburg with all his gunboat and mortar fleet, with transports and barges. The object was to cover and assist Grant's movement below. The armored vessels were laden with supplies; so, also, were the transports. It was arranged for the gunboats to go down in single file, a few hundred yards apart, attack the batteries as they passed, and allow the transports to pass under cover of the smoke. This was done on the evening of April 16, 1863. These vessels were terribly pounded by the batteries on the heights, but returned the fire with spirit. One of the vessels was set on fire, which burned to the water's edge and sank. The gantlet was successfully run, and only one man lost his life in the operation. Grant immediately ordered six more transports to do likewise, and it was done.



THE LOUISIANA.

Gunnison, JOHN W., military engineer; born in New Hampshire in 1812; graduated at the United States Military Academy; commissioned second lieutenant of

RECENT TYPE OF GUNBOAT (U. S. S. BENNINGTON.)

topographical engineers, July 7, 1838; engaged with Capt. Howard Stansbury in drawing maps of the Great Salt Lake region in 1849–51. He was author of a *History of the Mormons of Utah: Their Domestic Polity and Theology.* He was murdered, with seven others, by a band of Mormons and Indians near Sevier Lake, Ut., Oct. 26, 1853.

Gunpowder. See DU PONT, ÉLEUTHÈRE IRÉNÉE.

Gurowski, ADAM, COUNT, author; born in Poland, Sept. 10, 1805; came to the United States in 1849. His publications include *America and Europe; Slavery in History; My Diary* (notes on the Civil War), etc. He died in Washington, D. C., May 4, 1866.

Guthrie, JAMES, statesman; born in Nelson county, Ky., Dec. 5, 1792; member of State legislature, 1827–40; Secretary of Treasury, 1853–57; United States Senator, 1865–68. He died in Louisville, Ky., March 13, 1869.

Guyot, ARNOLD HENRY, geologist; born in Bondevilliers, Neuchâtel, Switzerland, Sept. 28, 1807; was educated at the College of Neuchâtel. In 1838 he made examinations of the Swiss glaciers, at the request of PROF. LOUIS AGASSIZ (*q. v.*). In 1839–48 he was Professor of History and Physical Geography at Neuchâtel. In 1848 he came to the United States. In 1854 he became Professor of Geography and Geology at Princeton. He established the museum in Princeton, which has become widely known. In 1866–75 he was engaged in the preparation of a series of geographies and a series of wall-maps. For this work the Vienna Exposition of 1873 awarded him a medal. In 1873–77 he edited *Johnson's New Universal Cyclopædia* (with Frederick A. P. Barnard), and was the author of many articles in it on physical geography and like subjects. His publications include biographies of Carl Ritter, James H. Coffin, and Louis Agassiz; *A Treatise on Physical Geography; Creation, or the Biblical Cosmogony in the Light of Modern Sciences;* and also numerous lectures. He died in Princeton, N. J., Feb. 8, 1884.

Gwin, WILLIAM MCKENDREE, politician; born in Sumner county, Tenn., Oct. 9, 1805; acquired a classical education; and for a time studied law, and later entered the medical department at Transylvania University, where he took his degree in 1828. He went to Clinton, Miss., and practised there till 1833, when he was appointed United States marshal for the Mississippi district. In 1840 he was elected to Congress by the Democratic party. He refused a renomination, and was later appointed to superintend the construction of the new custom-house at New Orleans. In 1849 he removed to California, and in September served in the convention at Monterey called to draw up a constitution. In December he became a United States Senator, and during his term secured a survey of the Pacific coast, a mint in San Francisco, a navy-yard (Mare Island), and got a bill passed for the establishment of a line of steamers between San Francisco, Japan, and China. He was re-elected, but when the Civil War began was accused of disloyalty, arrested, and imprisoned till 1863, when he was released. He interested the Emperor of France in a plan to colonize Sonora, Mexico, with Confederates. It is alleged that the French minister of foreign affairs encouraged him to draft a scheme for the colony, which, after meeting the approbation of the Emperor, was given into the hands of Emperor Maximilian. After the latter had been in Mexico two years, Dr. Gwin also went there, but received no promises of support from Maximilian in his colonization plans. Returning to France in 1865 he again laid the matter before Napoleon, at whose solicitation he returned to Mexico with orders to Marshal Bazaine to provide whatever force was necessary to make his plans successful. Dr. Gwin, however, received no encouragement and returned to California. He engaged actively in politics, and in 1876 supported Samuel J. Tilden for President. He was for many

years known as "Duke Gwin, of Sonora." He died in New York City, Sept. 3, 1885.

Gwinnett, BUTTON, a signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in England about 1732; was a merchant at Bristol, and emigrated to Charleston, S. C., in 1770. He settled on St. Catharine's Island, off the coast of Georgia, in 1772. Cautious and doubtful, he took no part in political affairs until after the Revolutionary War was begun, when he became active in the patriot cause. He was chosen a Representative in Congress in 1776, where he voted for and signed the Declaration of Independence. In 1777 he was president of the provincial council of Georgia, and by hostility to General McIntosh excited the resentment of the latter, who challenged Gwinnett to fight a duel. He accepted the challenge, and on May 15, 1777, was mortally wounded, dying on the 27th.

Gwyn, WILLIAM M. See GWIN, WILLIAM M.

Gwyn's Island (Va.). After the destruction of NORFOLK (*q. v.*) by Lord Dunmore, the Tory governor of Virginia, the Americans, under Stevens, held the town until late in February, 1776, when they abandoned the place. Dunmore sailed down the Elizabeth River and landed at Gwyn's Island, which he fortified. GEN. ANDREW LEWIS (*q. v.*) erected two batteries, with which he attacked Dunmore on July 8, 1776. The next day the British fled to their ships, and, after plundering a number of plantations on the Potomac, divided their fleet, sending some of the ships to the Bermudas, some to the West Indies, and the remainder, with Dunmore, to New York City.

H.

Haanel, EUGENE, educator; born in Breslau, Germany, May 24, 1841; came to the United States in 1859; taught in Adrian, Hillsdale, and Albion colleges in Michigan; was professor in Victoria College, Coburg, Ontario, in 1873–88; then became Professor of Physical Science in Syracuse University. He resigned the last charge in June, 1901, on being appointed superintendent of mines in Canada. Professor Haanel is a charter member of the Royal Society of Canada.

Habberton, JOHN, author; born in Brooklyn, N. Y., Feb. 24, 1842; was educated in the public schools of Illinois, and in 1859 went to New York and learned the printer's trade. In the Civil War he served in the Union army from 1862 to 1865, rising from private to lieutenant. After the war he entered the service of Harper & Brothers, where he remained till 1872. In 1874–77 he was literary editor of the *Christian Union;* in 1876–93 was on the editorial staff of the New York *Herald;* and in 1893–94 on the editorial staff of *Godey's Magazine.* His writings include *Helen's Babies; Other People's Children; The Barton Experiment; The Jericho Road; Who Was Paul Grayson? The Scripture Club of Valley Rest; Country Luck; Grown-up Babies; Life of Washington; My Mother-in-law; The Worst Boy in Town; All He Knew; Honey and Gall; The Lucky Lover;* etc. *Deacon Crankett,* his only drama, has been performed with much success.

Habeas Corpus, in English history. the subjects' *writ of right,* passed "for the better securing the liberty of the subject," 31 Charles II., c. 2, May 27, 1679. If any person be imprisoned by the order of any court, or of the King, he may have a writ of *habeas corpus* to bring him before the King's bench or common pleas, which shall determine whether his committal be just. This act (founded on the old common-law) is next in importance to *magna charta.* Parliament may suspend the *habeas corpus* act for a specified time in great emergency. Then the nation parts with a portion of liberty to secure its permanent welfare, and suspected persons may then be arrested without cause assigned.—*Blackstone.*

Act suspended for a short time. 1689, 1696, 1708
Suspended for Scots' Rebellion 1715-16
Suspended for twelve months 1722
Suspended for Scots' Rebellion 1744-45
Suspended for American War 1777-79
Again by Mr. Pitt, owing to French Revolution 1794
Suspended in Ireland in the great rebellion 1798
Suspended in England. Aug. 28, 1799, and April 14, 1801
Again, on account of Irish insurrection. 1803
Again, on alleged secret meetings ..... Feb. 21, 1817
Bill to restore *habeas corpus* introduced ..... Jan. 28, 1818
Suspended in Ireland (insurrection) ... July 24, 1848
Restored there ..... March 1, 1849
Suspended again Feb. 17, 1866; Feb. 26, and May 31, 1867; and Feb. 28, 1868, till ..... March 25, 1869

Because of the affair of John Anderson, an act of 1862 enacted that no writ of *habeas corpus* should issue out of England to any colony, etc., having a court with authority to grant such writ.

In United States history the Constitution provides that "the privilege of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when, in cases of rebellion or invasion, the public safety may require it"; but does not specify what department of the government may suspend it. A series of contests on this subject began with the Civil War and continued throughout, both as to the legality of suspension and the jurisdiction. The writ of *habeas corpus* was first suspended by President Lincoln between Washington and Philadelphia, April 27, 1861, in instructions to General Scott (it had been suspended by State authority

in Rhode Island for a brief time during Dorr's rebellion). See DORR, THOMAS WILSON.

President suspends the writ in Key West, Tortugas, and Santa Rosa.... May 10, 1861
Further extension.....July 2, 1861
Chief-Justice Taney issues a writ of *habeas corpus* May 27, to Gen. Geo. Cadwallader on appeal by John Merryman, of Baltimore, then confined in Fort McHenry.....May 25, 1861
[On the general's refusal to obey the writ Taney attempts to arrest him, but fails.]
Theophilus Parsons supports President's power to suspend.....June 5, 1861
Attorney-General Bates asserts the President's power to declare martial law and suspend the writ of *habeas corpus*.....July 5, 1861
One hundred and seventy-four persons committed to Fort Lafayette, July to Oct., 1861
Suspension of the writ made general. Sept. 24, 1862
Congress by act upholds this power. March 3, 1863
Vallandigham arrested.....May 1 1863
President suspends by proclamation. Sept. 15, 1863
All persons held under suspension of the writ discharged.....May, 1864
Suspends in Kentucky.....July 5, 1864
President Johnson restores the writ of *habeas corpus* except in the late insurrectionary States, District of Columbia, New Mexico, and Arizona, by proclamation.....Dec. 11, 1865
In all States and Territories except Texas .....April 2, 1866
Throughout the United States..Aug. 20, 1866
Thirty-eight thousand arrests were made according to the provost-marshal's record, Washington, during the Civil War.

Habersham, ALEXANDER WYLLY, naval officer; born in New York City, March 24, 1826; joined the navy in 1841; promoted lieutenant in 1855; resigned in May, 1860; went to Japan as a tea merchant; and was the first to introduce that plant from Japan into the United States. At the beginning of the Civil War he returned home and was a prisoner at Fort McHenry for six months. He was the author of a narrative of the United States North Pacific Exploring Expedition. He died in Baltimore, Md., March 26, 1883.

Habersham, JAMES, statesman; born in Beverly, England, in 1712; emigrated to Georgia in 1738; was appointed councillor and secretary of the province in 1754; president of the Assembly in 1767; and was acting governor of Georgia during the absence of Sir James Wright from 1769 to 1772. He was the first person to plant cotton in Georgia. He died in New Brunswick, N. J., Aug. 28, 1775.

Habersham, JOHN, military officer; born in Savannah, Ga., in 1754; appointed major of the 1st Georgia Regiment of Continentals; served throughout the Revolutionary War in the army, and after peace was declared was appointed Indian agent; was elected to the Continental Congress from Georgia in 1785. He died in Savannah, Ga., Nov. 19, 1799.

Habersham, JOSEPH, statesman; born in Savannah, Ga., July 28, 1751. His father, James, who was born in England in 1712, and died at New Brunswick, N. J., in 1775, accompanied Whitefield to Georgia in 1738, and was secretary of the province in 1754; president of the council and acting governor in 1769–72. Joseph was a member of the first patriotic committee in Georgia in 1774, and ever afterwards took an active part in the defence of the liberties of his country. He helped to seize gunpowder in the arsenal

JOSEPH HABERSHAM.

in 1775, and was a member of the council of safety. He was one of a company who captured a government ship (July, 1775), with munitions of war, including 15,000 lbs. of gunpowder. He led some volunteers who made the royal governor, Wright, a prisoner (Jan. 18, 1776), and confined him to his house under a guard. When Savannah was taken by the Brit-

ish, early in 1778, he took his family to Virginia; but in the siege of Savannah (1779) by Lincoln and D'Estaing, he held the office of colonel, which he retained till the close of the war. He was Postmaster-General in 1795–1801, and president of the Savannah branch of the United States Bank from 1802 till its charter expired. He died in Savannah, Nov. 17, 1815.

Hadley, ARTHUR TWINING, educator; born in New Haven, Conn., April 23, 1856; graduated at Yale University in 1876, and then studied in the Univer-

ARTHUR TWINING HADLEY.

sity of Berlin. Returning to the United States he was a tutor at Yale in 1879–83, and university lecturer on railroad administration in 1883–86. In the latter year he was made Professor of Political Science in the graduate department, where he remained till 1899, when he was elected president of the university by a unanimous vote. The only public office he has ever held was of commissioner of labor of Connecticut in 1885–87. He is the author of *Economics, an Account of the Relations Between Private Property and Public Welfare; Railroad Transportation, Its History and Laws;* and *Report on the System of Weekly Payments.* He is a member of the American Economic Association.

Hadley, ATTACK ON. At Hadley, on the Connecticut River, the Indians, in the absence of the little garrison, attempted the destruction of life and property, Sept. 1, 1675. The inhabitants were in the meeting-house, it being fast-day. The men seized their arms to defend themselves, their wives, and their little ones from the savages. Just as the latter seemed about to strike a destructive blow, and the men, unskilled in military affairs, felt themselves almost powerless, a man with a long, flowing white beard and military air suddenly appeared, drew his sword, and, putting himself at the head of the armed men, filled them with courage and led them to victory. The Indians fell back and fled, when the mysterious leader as suddenly disappeared, none knowing whence he came or whither he went. It was COL. WILLIAM GOFFE (*q. v.*), the "regicide," who was then concealed in the house of Mr. Russell, at Hadley.

Hague, PARTHENIA ANTOINETTE VARDAMAN, author; born in Harris county, Ga., Nov. 29, 1838; is the author of *A Blockaded Family, or Life in Southern Alabama during the Civil War.*

Hague, WILLIAM, clergyman; born in Pelham, N. Y., Jan. 4, 1808; graduated at Hamilton College in 1826, and at the Newton Theological Institution in 1829. He wrote *The Baptist Church; Review of Fuller and Wayland on Slavery;* etc. He died in Boston, Mass., Aug. 1, 1887.

Hague Court of Arbitration. See ARBITRATION.

Hahn, MICHAEL, jurist; born in Bavaria, Germany, Nov. 24, 1830; graduated at the University of Louisiana in 1854. He was opposed to secession and did all in his power to keep Louisiana in the Union. When New Orleans was captured in April, 1862, he immediately took the oath of allegiance to the United States; was elected governor of the State in 1864; and United States Senator in 1865, but was unable to obtain his seat. He served in the legislature for several years and in 1879 was elected district judge, which office he held until his resignation on being elected to the national House of Representatives in 1885. He died in Washington, D. C., March 15, 1886.

"Hail, Columbia," a stirring, patriotic song written in the spring of 1798, when war between the United States and France seemed inevitable. Mr. Fox, a young singer and actor in the Philadelphia Theatre, was to have a benefit.

There was so little novelty in the playhouse that he anticipated a failure. On the morning before the appointed day he called upon JOSEPH HOPKINSON (*q. v.*), a lawyer and man of letters, who indulged in writing verses, and said: "Not a single box has been taken, and I fear there will be a thin house. If you will write me some patriotic verses to the air of the *President's March* I feel sure of a full house. Several people about the theatre have attempted it, but they have come to the conclusion it can't be done. I think you may succeed." Hopkinson retired to his study, wrote the first verse and chorus, and submitted them to Mrs. Hopkinson, who sang them with a harpsichord accompaniment. The tune and words harmonized. The song was soon finished, and the young actor received it the same evening. Next morning the theatre placards contained an announcement that Mr. Fox would sing a new patriotic song. The house was crowded; the song was sung, and the audience were wild with delight, for it touched the public heart with electrical effect at that moment. Eight times the singer was called out to repeat the song. When it was sung the ninth time the whole audience arose and joined in the chorus. On the following night, April 30, President Adams and his wife, and some of the heads of departments, with their families, were present, and the singer was called out time after time. It was repeated night after night in the theatres of Philadelphia and other places, and it became the universal song of the boys in the streets. On one occasion a throng of people gathered before the author's residence, and suddenly the song, *Hail, Columbia!* from 500 voices broke the stillness of the night.

MR. FOX SINGING "HAIL, COLUMBIA!"

Haines, ALANSON AUSTIN, clergyman; born in Hamburg, N. J., March 18, 1830; graduated at Princeton in 1857; appointed chaplain of the 15th New Jersey Regiment in 1862; and was present in thirty-six battles. In 1873–76 he was engineer of the United States Palestine Exploration

Society, and made maps, sketches, and copies of rock inscriptions in the Holy Land, Egypt, and Turkey. His publications include *History of the 15th Regiment New Jersey Volunteers.* He died in Hamburg, N. J., Dec. 11, 1891.

Haines's Bluff. At this point on the Yazoo River there were stirring military events preparatory to the siege of Vicksburg. General Sherman, with the 15th Corps, had been operating in the Yazoo region, and when Grant determined to change his base of supplies to Grand Gulf, below Vicksburg, Sherman was ordered to make a feint against Haines's Bluff, which the Nationals had been unable to pass. On the morning of April 29, 1863, he proceeded from Milliken's Bend, with Blair's division, in ten steamboats, and armored and other gunboats, and went up the Yazoo. On the morning of May 6 the armored gunboats assailed the fortifications at Haines's Bluff, and in the evening Blair's troops were landed, as if with the intention of making an attack. The bombardment was kept up until dark, when the troops were quietly re-embarked. The assault and menace were repeated the next day, when Sherman received an order from Grant to hasten with his troops down the west side of the Mississippi and join him at Grand Gulf. See VICKSBURG.

Hakluyt, RICHARD, author; born in England about 1553. Educated at Oxford University, he was engaged there as a lecturer on cosmography, and was the first who taught the use of globes. In 1583 he published an account of voyages of discovery to America; and four years afterwards, while with the English ambassador at Paris, Sir Edward Stafford, probably as his chaplain, he published in French a narrative of the voyages of Laudonniere and others; and in 1587 he published them in English, under the title of *Four Voyages unto Florida.* On his return to England in 1589, Hakluyt was appointed by Raleigh one of the company of adventurers for colonizing Virginia. His greatest work, *The Principal Navigations, Voyages, Trafficks, and Discoveries of the English Nation, made by Sea or over Land, to the most remote and farthest distant Quarters of the Earth, at any time within the Compass of these Fifteen Hundred Years,* was published the same year. It contains many curious documents, and is illustrated by maps. Anthony à Wood, writing late in the seventeenth century, referring to this great work, spoke of it as an "honor to the realm of England, because possessing many ports and islands in America that are bare and barren, and only bear a name for the present, but may prove rich places in future time." Hakluyt was appointed prebendary of Westminster in 1605, having been previously prebendary of Bristol. Afterwards he was rector of Wetheringset, Suffolk, and at his death, Oct. 23, 1616, was buried in Westminster Abbey. Henry Hudson, who discovered Spitzbergen in 1608, gave the name of Hakluyt's Head to a point on that island; and Bylot gave his name to an island in Baffin Bay. A society founded in 1846, for the republication of early voyages and travels, took his name.

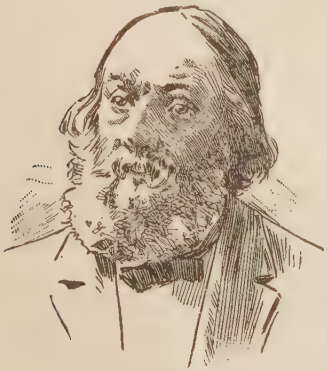
Haldeman, SAMUEL STEHMAN, naturalist; born in Locust Grove, Pa., Aug. 12, 1812; was educated in a classical school in Harrisburg and in Dickinson College. In 1836 he was assistant to Henry D. Rogers, State geologist of New Jersey, and in the following year he joined the Pennsylvania survey, in which he was engaged till 1842. He was Professor of Natural Sciences in the University of Pennsylvania in 1851–55, and then took the similar chair in Delaware College. From 1869 till his death, Sept. 10, 1880, he was Professor of Comparative Philology in the University of Pennsylvania. Professor Haldeman had a wonderfully delicate ear. In 1848 he described in the *American Journal of Science* a new origin of sound which he had discovered in lepidopterous insects. He also determined more than forty varieties of vocal repertoire in the human voice. His publications include *Fresh-Water Univalve Molluska of the United States;* a prize essay on *Analytical Orthography; Zoological Contributions; Elements of Latin Pronunciation;* an edition of Taylor's *Statistics of Coal; Tours of a Chess Knight; Affixes in their Origin and Application; Rhymes of the Poets; Pennsylvania Dutch; Outlines of Etymology; Word Building,* etc.

Haldimand, SIR FREDERICK, military officer; born in Neuchâtel, Switzerland, in

October, 1728; served for some time in the Prussian army, and, in 1754, entered the British military service. He came to America in 1757, and as lieutenant-colonel distinguished himself at Ticonderoga (1758) and Oswego (1759). He accompanied Amherst to Montreal in 1760. In 1767 he was employed in Florida, and became major-general in 1772. Returning to England in 1775 to give the ministry information respecting the colonies, he was commissioned a major-general (Jan. 1, 1776), and in 1777 a lieutenant-general and lieutenant-governor of Quebec, where he succeeded Carleton as governor in 1778. He ruled arbitrarily until 1784, when he returned to England. He died in Yverdun, Switzerland, June 5, 1791.

Hale, CHARLES REUBEN, clergyman; born in Lewiston, Pa., in 1837; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1858; was made a bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in 1892. He published the *Universal Episcopate; The American Church and Methodism*, etc. He died in Cairo, Ill., Dec. 25, 1900.

Hale, EDWARD EVERETT, clergyman; born in Boston, April 3, 1822; graduated at Harvard College in 1839; studied theology and was minister of the Church of the Unity, Worcester, Mass., in 1846–



EDWARD EVERETT HALE.

56, and of the South Church (Unitarian), Boston, in 1856–99. On December 15, 1903, he was elected chaplain of the United States Senate to date from Jan. 1, 1904. He is the author of *The Man Without a Country; Ten Times One is Ten; Margaret Percival in America; In His Name; Mr. Tangiers' Vacations; Mrs. Merriam's Scholars; His Level Best; Ups and Downs; Fortunes of Rachel; Four and Five; Crusoe in New York; Christmas Eve and Christmas Day; Our Christmas in a Palace; Sketches in Christian History; Kansas and Nebraska; What Career? Boys' Heroes; Sybaris, and Other Homes; For Fifty Years; A New England Boyhood; Chautauquan History of the United States*, etc. See LEND-A-HAND CLUBS.

Hale, EUGENE, lawyer; born in Turner, Me., June 9, 1836; admitted to the bar in 1857; was county attorney for Hancock county nine years; elected to the State legislature in 1867 and to Congress in 1869, where he served ten years. In 1881 he was elected to the United States Senate, and re-elected in 1887, 1893, and 1899.

Hale, GEORGE SILSBEE, lawyer; born in Keene, N. H., Sept. 24, 1825; graduated at Harvard College in 1844; admitted to the bar in 1850, and began practice in Boston. His publications include *Memoirs* of Joel Parker and Theron Metcalf. He also edited the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth volumes of the *United States Digest*. He died in Schooner Head, Me., July 28, 1897.

Hale, IRVING, military officer; born in North Bloomfield, N. Y., Aug. 28, 1861; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1884, having made the best record ever achieved in that institution. When the war with Spain broke out he went to the Philippines as colonel of the 1st Colorado Volunteer Regiment, which he led in the capture of Manila. In recognition of his services in the Philippines he was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers.

Hale, JOHN, clergyman; born in Charlestown, Mass., June 9, 1636; graduated at Harvard in 1657; ordained pastor of Beverly in 1667. He approved the prosecution of alleged witches during the Salem witchcraft excitement in 1692, and in 1697 published an inquiry into the nature of witchcraft. He died May 15, 1700.

Hale, JOHN PARKER, politician; born in Rochester, N. H., March 31, 1806; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1827; studied in his native town, and was there

admitted to the bar in 1830. He was appointed United States district attorney in 1834 and reappointed in 1838, but was removed, June 17, 1841, by President Tyler on party grounds. In 1842 he was elected to Congress; and in 1847–53 was a United States Senator. He was counsel, in 1851, in the trials which resulted from the forcible rescue of the fugitive slave Shadrach from the custody of the United States marshal in Boston. He was nominated by the Free-soil party for President of the United States, with George W. Julian for Vice-President, in 1852, and received 157,680 votes. In 1855 he was returned to the United States Senate for the four years of the unexpired term of Mr. Atherton, deceased, and in 1859 was re-elected for a full term. He was United States minister to Spain in 1865–69. He died in Dover, N. H., Nov. 19, 1873.

Hale, NATHAN, patriot; born in Coventry, Conn., June 6, 1755; graduated at Yale College in 1773; and taught school till the fight in Lexington prompted him to join Col. Charles Webb's regiment. He took part in the siege of Boston; was promoted to captain in January, 1776; and was sent to New York. In response to a call from Washington he volunteered to enter the British lines and procure needed information. At the house of Robert Murray, on the Incleberg (now Murray Hill, in the city of New York), where Washington had his headquarters for a brief time while retreating towards Harlem Heights, Hale received instructions on duty from the commander-in-chief. He entered the British camp on Long Island as a plain young farmer, and made sketches and notes unsuspected. A Tory kinsman knew and betrayed him. He was taken to Howe's headquarters at the Beekman mansion, and confined in the green-house all night. He frankly avowed his name, rank, and character as a spy (which his papers revealed), and, without even the form of a trial, was handed over to the provost-marshal (Cunningham) the next morning (Sept. 22, 1776) to be hanged. That infamous officer denied Hale the services of a clergyman and the use of a Bible; but the more humane officer who superintended the execution furnished him with materials to write letters to his mother, his betrothed, and sisters. These the brutal Cunningham destroyed before the face of his victim, while tears and sobs marked the sympathy of the spectators. With unfaltering voice, Hale said, at the last mo-

THE HALE HOMESTEAD.

HALE'S EXECUTION.

ment, "I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country." Statues of the patriot have been erected in the capitol in Hartford and in City Hall Park, New York City.

Hale, SALMA, historian; born in Alstead, N. H., March 7, 1787; was elected to Congress in 1816; appointed clerk of the Supreme Court in 1817; and admitted to the bar in 1834. He is the author of a *History of the United States; The Administration of John Quincy Adams; Annals of the Town of Keene,* etc. He died in Somerville, Mass., Nov. 19, 1866.

Hale, SARAH JOSEPHA (BUELL), author; born in Newport, N. H., Oct. 24, 1788; was educated by her mother; married David Hale in 1813; was left a widow in 1822, and engaged in literature as a means of support. In 1828–37 she conducted the *Ladies' Magazine* in Boston. In the latter year this paper was united with *Godey's Lady's Book* in Philadelphia, of which Mrs. Hale became editor. She was an early and influential advocate of higher education for women. In 1860 she suggested that Thanksgiving Day be instituted by the national government as a national holiday, and in 1864 President Lincoln established this holiday. She continued in active editorial work till 1877. Her writings include the poems, *The Light of Home; Mary's Lamb; It Snows,* etc. Among her other works are *Woman's Record, or Sketches of All Distinguished Women from the Creation to the Present Day; Northwood; Sketches of American Character; Traits of American Life; Flora's Interpreter; The Ladies' Wreath; The Way to Live Well and to be Well While We Live; Grosvenor, a Tragedy; The White Veil; Alice Ray; Harry Gray, the Widow's Son; Three Hours, or the Vigil of Love; Dictionary of Poetical Quotations; The Judge, a Drama of American Life; The Bible Reading-Book; Manners, or Happy Homes and Good Society,* etc. She died in Philadelphia, April 30, 1879.

The following is an extract from Mrs.

Hale's *Remarks* in her *Woman's Record* for the period 1800–68:

> In truth, when we look over the world, with the exception of two nations, it still bears that shadow of gloom which fell when the ground first drank human blood; and Man the Murderer, Woman the Mourner, is still the great distinction between the sexes!
>
> Thank God there is hope. The Anglo-Saxon race in Europe numbers about 30,000,000, living on a little island in the stormy northern ocean. But there, for over 100 years, the sounds of battle have not been heard; the Salic law never shamed the honor of their royal race; the holy Bible has been for three centuries their household book, and a free press now disseminates truth among the people. Those 30,000,000 hold the mastery of mind over Europe and Asia; if we trace out the causes of this superiority they would centre in that moral influence which true religion confers on the woman.
>
> Therefore, the Queen of Great Britain is the greatest and most honored sovereign now enthroned; feminine genius is the grace and glory of British literature; feminine piety the purest light of the Anglican Church; and this era is made brilliant by the distinguished women of the British island. There is still a more wonderful example of this uplifting power of the educated mind of woman. It is only ninety years since the Anglo-Saxons in the New World became a nation, then numbering about 3,000,000 souls. Now this people form the great American republic, with a population of 30,000,000; and the destiny of the world will soon be in their keeping. The Bible has been their "Book of books" since the first Puritan exile set his foot on Plymouth Rock. Religion is free; and the soul, which woman always influences where God is worshipped in spirit and truth, is untrammelled by code, or creed, or caste. No blood has been shed on the soil of this nation, save in the sacred cause of freedom and self-defence; therefore, the blasting evils of war have seldom been felt; nor has the woman ever been subjected to the hard labor imposed by God upon the man—that of "subduing the earth." The advantages of primary education have been accorded to girls equally with boys, and, though the latter have, in their endowed colleges, enjoyed the special benefit of direct legislation, yet public sentiment has always been favorable to feminine education, and private liberality has supplied, in a good degree, the means of instruction to the daughters of the republic. The result is before the world—a miracle of national advancement. American mothers train their sons to be men!
>
> The old Saxon stock is yet superior to the new in that brilliancy of feminine genius the artificial state of social life in England now fosters and elicits, surpassing every nation in its list of learned ladies; yet in all that contributes to popular education and pure religious sentiment among the masses, the women of America are in advance of all others on the globe. To prove this, we need only examine the list of American missionary women, the teachers and authoresses of works instructive and educational, contained in this *Record*.

Hale, William Bayard, clergyman; born in Richmond, Ind., April 6, 1869; graduated at Boston University; ordained in the Protestant Episcopal Church in 1894. His publications include *The Making of the American Constitution; The Genesis of Nationality*, etc.

Half-breeds, the name applied by the "Stalwarts" under Conkling to those Republicans who opposed the third nomination of Grant, the course of President Hayes in reconciling the South, and who favored the policy of Blaine.

Half-way Covenant. In 1657 a council was held in Boston, and in 1662 a synod of all the clergy in Massachusetts was convened to reconsider the decision of the council that all Baptist persons of upright and decorous lives ought to be considered for practical purposes as members of the Church, and therefore entitled to the exercise of political rights, even though unqualified for participation in the Lord's Supper. In 1669 the advocates of the "Half-way Covenant" seceded from the old Church, forming a new society, and built a meeting-house, which was succeeded in 1729 by the present Old South Church.

Haliburton, Thomas Chandler, author; born in Windsor, Nova Scotia, in 1797; studied law and was admitted to

the bar in 1820. Later he became a member of the House of Assembly. He was chief-justice of the court of common pleas in 1829, and was appointed judge of the supreme court in 1840. He held this office till 1842, when he removed to England. In 1859 he represented Launceston in Parliament as a Conservative, and remained there till 1865. His publications include *The Clock-Maker, or the Sayings and Doings of Samuel Slick, of Slickville,* which consists of a collection of newspaper sketches satirizing New Englanders. His other writings include *The Attaché, or Sam Slick in England; An Historical and Statistical Account of Nova Scotia; Bubbles of Canada; The Old Judge, or Life in a Colony; Letter-Bag of the Great Western; Rule and Misrule of the English in America; Yankee Stories; Traits of American Humor,* etc. He also edited a number of books, among them one on the *Settlement of New England.* He died in Isleworth, England, Aug. 27, 1865.

Halifax, Earl of. See Montague, Charles.

Halifax Fisheries Award. One of the articles of the treaty of Washington provided for a commission to adjudicate the value of the fishery privileges conceded to the United States by that treaty. This commission met in Halifax, Nova Scotia, June 5, 1877. Great Britain was represented by Sir Alexander F. Galt; the United States by E. H. Kellogg. The third commissioner, Maurice Delfosse, was named by Austria, as provided for in the treaty. The commission awarded Great Britain $5,500,000 for the use of the fishing privileges for twelve years. The money was appropriated by Congress in 1878 with the proviso "articles 18 and 21 of the treaty between the United States and Great Britain, concluded on May 8, 1871, ought to be terminated at the earliest period consistent with the provisions of article 33 of the same treaty." The President of the United States, in pursuance of instructions from Congress, gave the required notice, and the fishery articles therefore came to an end July 1, 1885. In 1888 the new treaty was negotiated in reference to the fishery question, but was rejected by the United States Senate, Aug. 21, 1888.

Halkett, Sir Peter, military officer; born in Pitfirrane, Scotland; elected to Parliament in 1734; commanded a regiment, and with his son was killed in the battle near Pittsburg, Pa. (where Braddock was defeated), July 9, 1755.

Hall, Asaph, astronomer; born in Goshen, Conn., Oct. 15, 1829; received a common-school education; worked on a farm; and later became a carpenter. In 1853 he took up the study of geometry and algebra; subsequently pursued special courses in the University of Michigan, and afterwards entered the observatory of Harvard College, where he served as assistant in 1857–62. In August of the latter year he was made aide in the United States Naval Observatory in Washington, and in the following year was appointed Professor of Mathematics with the relative rank of captain. In 1895 he became Professor of Astronomy at Harvard University. He has led many astronomical expeditions for the government, among them being that to Bering Sea, in 1869, to observe the solar eclipse, and that to Vladisvostok, Siberia, in 1874, to study the transit of Venus. His most important discovery, which won him great distinction, was that of the two moons of Mars, which he located in August, 1877, and which he named "Deimos" and "Phobos" (Terror and Fear). The Royal Astronomical Society of London awarded him its gold medal in 1879. In 1875 he became a member of the National Academy of Sciences, of which he was president in 1901. He has contributed to many astronomical journals.

Hall, Benjamin Homer, author; born in Troy, N. Y., Nov. 14, 1830; was admitted to the bar in 1856, and began practice in his native city. His publications include *History of Eastern Vermont, etc.;* and *Bibliography of the United States: Vermont;* and he was the editor of *A Tribute by the Citizens of Troy to the Memory of Abraham Lincoln.* He died in Troy, N. Y., April 6, 1893.

Hall, Bolton, lawyer; born in Ireland in 1854; graduated at Princeton College in 1875. He has been a strong pleader for the restoration of the land to the people, and has put into practice his theory by inducing many unemployed persons to engage in the cultivation of vacant

lots. He is known as a lecturer on university extension and other reforms.

Hall, Charles Francis, explorer; born in Rochester, N. H., in 1821; in early life was first a blacksmith, and then a journalist in Cincinnati. In 1859 he appeared in New York, and at a meeting of the American Geographical Society he offered to go in search of the remains of Sir John Franklin. Funds for the purpose were raised, and in May, 1860, he sailed from New London, Conn., in a whaling vessel, commanded by Capt. Sidney O. Buddington. The vessel became locked in the ice. He made the acquaintance of the Eskimos, learned their language, acquired their friendship, and lived with them two years, making his way back to the United States in September, 1862, without having discovered any traces of Sir John Franklin and his party. He was accompanied by an Eskimo and his wife. His *Arctic Researches and Life among the Eskimos* was published in 1864. In July of that year he set out on another polar expedition, with Buddington, expecting to be absent two or three years, but did not return until late in 1869. Satisfied that none of Franklin's men were alive, Hall labored to induce Congress to fit out a ship to search for the supposed open polar sea, and it made an appropriation for the purpose. A ship called the *Polaris* was fitted out, and sent (from New York, June 29, 1871) under the general command of Hall, Buddington going as sailing-master, accompanied by scientific associates. In August they reached the northern settlement in Greenland. Pushing on northward, the vessel reached lat. 86° 16′, the most northerly point reached up to that time. They wintered in a cove (which they called Polaris), in lat. 81° 38′. In October Hall and three others started on a sledge expedition northward, and reached a point a few miles short of that touched by the *Polaris*. They soon returned, when Hall was taken sick and died Nov. 8, 1871. In August, 1872, Captain Buddington attempted to return with the *Polaris*, but for weeks was in the ice-pack. She was in great peril, and preparations were made to abandon her. The boats, provisions, and nineteen of the crew were put on the ice, but before the rest of them could get out the vessel broke loose and drifted away. Those on the ice drifted southward for 195 days, floating helplessly about 2,000 miles. An Eskimo, the friend of Captain Hall, kept the company from starving by his skill in seal-fishing. The party was picked up in April, 1873, by a Nova Scotia whaling steamer, and the *Polaris* made a port on an island, where her crew wintered, made boats of her boards, and set sail southward. They were picked up, June 23, by a Scotch whaler and taken to Dundee. Captain Buddington was born in Groton, Conn., Sept. 16, 1823; and died there, June 13, 1888.

Hall, David, printer; born in Edinburgh, Scotland, in 1714; emigrated to America in 1747; became a partner of Benjamin Franklin, but the partnership was dissolved in 1766, when the firm of Hall & Sellers was established. This firm had the printing of the Pennsylvania colonial currency and also the Continental money issued by authority of Congress. He died in Philadelphia, Dec. 24, 1772.

Hall, Dominick Augustine, jurist; born in South Carolina in 1765; was district judge of Orleans Territory from 1809 till it became the State of Louisiana in 1812, when he was appointed United States judge of the State. While the city of New Orleans was under martial law early in 1815, General Jackson caused Judge Hall's arrest for interfering with the operations of that law. On his release, in March, he summoned Jackson to answer for contempt of court, and fined him $1,000. He died in New Orleans, Dec. 19, 1820.

Hall, Edwin, clergyman; born in Granville, N. Y., Jan. 11, 1802; graduated at Middlebury College in 1826; pastor of a Congregational church at Norwalk, Conn., in 1832–54; then elected Professor of Theology in Auburn Seminary. He is the author of *The Puritans and Their Principles; Historical Records of Norwalk*, etc. He died in Auburn, N. Y., Sept. 8, 1877.

Hall, Gordon, first American missionary to India; born in Tolland county, Mass., April 8, 1784; was ordained at Salem in 1812, and sailed for Calcutta, where he arrived in February, 1813, and spent thirteen years there in missionary

labors. He died of cholera in India, March 20, 1826.

Hall, GRANVILLE STANLEY, educator; born in Ashfield, Mass., May 5, 1845; graduated at Williams College in 1867. He served as professor of psychology in Antioch College, Ohio, in 1872–76. Later he studied in Bonn, Leipsic, Heidelberg, and Berlin. Returning, he lectured on psychology in Harvard University and Williams College in 1880–81. In 1881 he became Professor of Psychology in Johns Hopkins University, and remained there till 1888, when he accepted the presidency, with the chair of psychology, of Clark University. He is author of *Aspects of German Culture; Hints Toward a Select and Descriptive Bibliography of Education* (with John M. Mansfield), etc. In 1900 he was editor of *The American Journal of Psychology* and *The Pedagogical Seminary.*

Hall, HILAND, jurist; born in Bennington, Vt., July 20, 1795; admitted to the bar in 1819; was a member of the first National Republican Convention in 1856. He was governor of Vermont in 1858–59; and published a *History of Vermont.* He died in Springfield, Mass., Dec. 18, 1885.

Hall, JAMES, military officer; born in Carlisle, Pa., Aug. 22, 1744; graduated at Princeton in 1774; became pastor of the Presbyterian church at Bethany, N. C., in 1778. He belonged to the church militant, and during the Revolutionary War was an ardent patriot. He raised a troop of cavalry, and was at once commander and chaplain. He is the author of a *Report of a Missionary Tour Through the Mississippi and the Southwestern Country.* He died in Bethany, N. C., July 25, 1826.

Hall, JAMES, military officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Aug. 19, 1793; enlisted as a private in 1812; commanded a detachment from his company at the battle of Chippewa in 1814 and at the siege of Fort Erie; received a commission in the army in 1815; and served in Decatur's expedition to Algiers on the United States brig *Enterprise.* He left the army in 1818; was admitted to the bar the same year; removed to Shawneetown, Ill., in 1820, and to Cincinnati in 1833. He edited at various times the *Illinois Gazette,* the *Illinois Intelligencer,* the *Illinois Monthly Magazine,* and the *Western Monthly Magazine.* Among his published works are *Life of Thomas Posey; Life of Gen. W. H. Harrison; Notes on the Western States; History of the Indian Tribes; The Wilderness and the War-Path,* etc. He died July 5, 1868.

Hall, JAMES, geologist; born in Hingham, Mass., Sept. 12, 1811; was graduated at the Rensselaer School (now Polytechnic Institute) in Troy, in 1832; was retained there as assistant Professor of Chemistry and Natural Science, and became full professor in 1854. He held this chair till 1876, when he became professor emeritus. In 1836, when the geological survey of New York was organized, and four divisions made of the State, he was appointed assistant geologist in the second division. In the following year he was appointed State geologist. In 1838–41 he explored the western portion of the State and embodied the results in the second, third, fourth, and fifth *Annual Reports* on the work. His final report on the survey of the fourth geological district was issued in 1843 as *Geology of New York, Part IV.* During that year he took charge of the paleontological work of the State survey, the results of which are published in 13 volumes entitled the *Natural History of New York.* This is considered the greatest work of its kind in the world. It is estimated that the work cost the State more than $1,000,000. It is valuable not only because of the paleontological information which it contains, but also for its details of the researches westward to the Rocky Mountains. These researches form the basis of all the knowledge of geology of the Mississippi Valley. In 1855 he was also State geologist for Iowa, and in 1857 for Wisconsin. In 1866–93 he was director of the New York State Museum. Dr. Hall gave much time to the investigation of crystalline stratified rocks, and he was the discoverer of the persistence and significance of mineralogical character as an indicator to classification. In speaking of this a scholar has said: "It is not too much to say that the method was established by the New York survey, and that it finds its best in the classic fourth district; here it was that American stratigraphic geology was founded." Furthermore, Dr. Hall originated the rational

theory of mountains, which is held to be one of the most valuable contributions made to isostasy. His publications include, besides those mentioned: *Graptolites of the Quebec Group;* the paleontological portions of *Frémont's Exploring Expedition, Appendix A; Expedition to the Great Salt Lake; United States and Mexican Boundary Survey; United States Geological Exploration of the Fortieth Parallel* (vol. iv., 1877); *Geological Survey of Iowa,* and chapters on geology, paleontology and physical geography in the *Report on the Geological Survey of the State of Wisconsin.* He died in Echo Hill, N. H., Aug. 7, 1898.

Hall, LYMAN, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Connecticut in 1725; graduated at Yale College in 1747, and, becoming a physician, established himself at Sunbury, Ga., where he was very successful. He was a member of the Georgia convention in 1774–75, and was influential in causing Georgia to join the other colonies. He was a delegate to Congress in March, 1775, from the parish of St. John, and in July was elected a delegate by the provincial convention of Georgia. He remained in Congress until 1780, when the invasion of the State caused him to hasten home. He was governor of Georgia in 1783, and died in Burke county, Ga., Oct. 19, 1790.

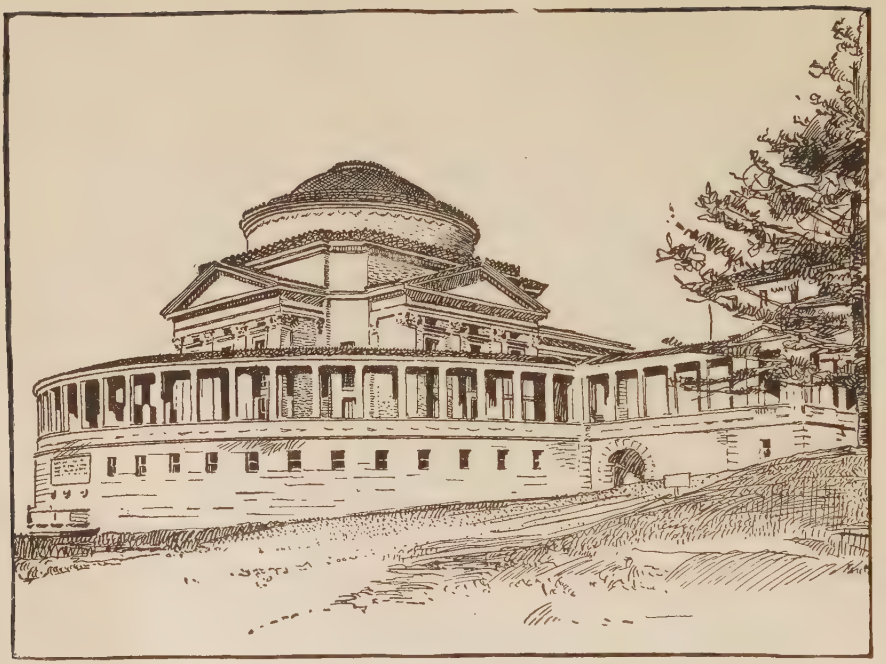
Hall, NATHAN KELSEY, statesman; born in Marcellus, N. Y., March 10, 1810; admitted to the bar in 1832; appointed judge of the court of common pleas in 1841; elected to the Assembly in 1845; to Congress in 1847. President Fillmore appointed him Postmaster-General in 1850 and United States district judge in 1852. He died in Buffalo, N. Y., March 2, 1874.

Hall, NEWMAN, clergyman; born in Maidstone, Kent, England, May 22, 1816; graduated at the University of London in 1841. He was pastor of the Albion Congregational Church in Hull in 1842–54. In the latter year he became pastor of Surrey Chapel, London. While the American Civil War was being waged, he was a strong friend of the Union, and at the conclusion of the war he made a lecturing tour of the United States for the purpose of promoting international good-will. This visit was afterwards commemorated by the construction, as a part of the new church on Westminster Road, of the Lincoln Tower, the cost of which was met by subscriptions from American and English citizens. His publications, which have met with much favor in the United States, include: *The Christian Philosopher; Italy, the Land of the Forum and the Vatican; Lectures in America; Sermons and History of Surrey Chapel; From Liverpool to St. Louis; Pilgrims' Songs; Prayer, its Reasonableness and Efficacy; The Lord's Prayer; Songs of Earth and Heaven;* and a lecture on the assassination of President Lincoln, in London, in 1865. He died in London, Feb. 18, 1902.

Hall, ROBERT HENRY, military officer; born in Detroit, Mich., Nov. 15, 1837; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1860; was promoted to second and first lieutenant of the 10th Infantry in 1861; captain in 1863; major of the 22d Infantry in 1883; lieutenant-colonel of the 6th Infantry in 1888; and colonel of the 4th Infantry, May 18, 1893. In the volunteer service he was appointed a brigadier-general May 27, 1898; was honorably discharged under that commission and reappointed to the same rank April 15, 1899; and on the reorganization of the regular army in February, 1901, he was appointed one of the new brigadier-generals. During the Civil War he served on the frontier; in the Rappahannock campaign; in the operations about Chattanooga; and in the action at Weldon, Va., where he was wounded. In 1865–71 he was again on frontier duty, and in 1871–78 was on duty at the United States Military Academy. For some time prior to his last promotion he was on duty in the Philippine Islands.

Hall, SAMUEL, printer; born in Medford, Mass., Nov. 2, 1740; was a partner of the widow of James Franklin in 1761–68, in which year he published the *Essex Gazette* in Salem, Mass. He removed to Cambridge in 1775 and published the *New England Chronicle,* and subsequently the *Massachusetts Gazette.* He died in Boston, Mass., Oct. 30, 1807.

Hall of Fame, a building erected in 1900 on the grounds of the New York University, New York City, with funds provided by HELEN M. GOULD (*q. v.*), and officially known as "The Hall of Fame



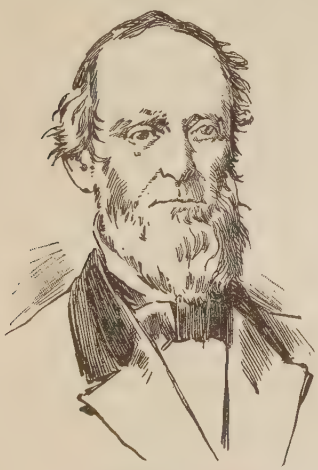
THE HALL OF FAME.

for Great Americans." It is built in the form of a semicircle, 506 feet long, 15 feet wide, and 170 feet high. Within the colonnade will be 150 panels, each 2 by 8 feet in dimensions, which are to contain the names of Americans adjudged the most eminent in their respective spheres. The rules adopted by the council of the university allow the name of such persons only who were born within the territory of the United States, who have been dead ten or more years, and who were included within one of ten classes of citizens—viz., authors and editors, business men, educators, inventors, missionaries and explorers, philanthropists and reformers, preachers and theologians, scientists, engineers and architects, lawyers and judges, musicians, painters and sculptors, physicians and surgeons, rulers and statesmen, soldiers and sailors, and distinguished men and women outside the above classes. Fifty names will first be inscribed. To these five additional names are to be added every five years until the year 2000, when the 150 inscriptions will be completed. In October, 1900, a jury of 100 persons was appointed to invite and pass upon nominations for the first fifty names. The number of names submitted reached 252, of which twenty-nine received fifty-one (the minimum) or more votes. These were, therefore, declared eligible. The following are the names, with the number of votes, which were accepted. The remaining twenty-one are to be selected in 1905.

George Washington, 97; Abraham Lincoln, 96; Daniel Webster, 96; Benjamin Franklin, 94; Ulysses S. Grant, 92; John Marshall, 91; Thomas Jefferson, 90; Ralph Waldo Emerson, 87; Henry W. Longfellow, 85; Robert Fulton, 85; Washington Irving, 83; Jonathan Edwards, 81; Samuel F. B. Morse, 80; David G. Farragut, 79; Henry Clay, 74; Nathaniel Hawthorne, 73; George Peabody, 72; Robert E. Lee, 69; Peter Cooper, 69; Eli Whitney, 67; John J. Audubon, 67; Horace Mann, 66; Henry Ward Beecher, 66; James Kent, 65; Joseph Story, 64; John Adams,

61; William E. Channing, 58; Gilbert Stuart, 52; Asa Gray, 51.

Halleck, Fitz-Greene, poet; born in Guilford, Conn., July 8, 1790; became a clerk in the banking-house of Jacob Barker at the age of eighteen years; and was long a confidential clerk with John Jacob Astor, who made him one of the first trustees of the Astor Library. From early boyhood he wrote verses. With Joseph Rodman Drake, he wrote the humorous series known as *The Croker Papers* for the *Evening Post* in 1819. His longest poem, *Fanny*, a satire upon the literature and politics of the times, was published in 1821. The next year he went to Europe, and in 1827 his *Alnwick Castle, Marco Bozzaris,* and other poems were published in a volume. Halleck was a genuine poet, but he wrote comparatively little. His pieces of importance are only thirty-two in number, and altogether com-



FITZ-GREENE HALLECK.

prise only about 4,000 lines. Yet he wrote with great facility. His *Fanny,* in the measure of Byron's *Don Juan,* was completed and printed within three weeks after it was begun. Late in life he joined the Roman Catholic Church. He died in Guilford, Nov. 19, 1867.

Halleck, Henry Wager, military officer; born in Westernville, Oneida co., N. Y., Jan. 16, 1815; graduated at West Point in 1839, entering the engineer corps. Until June, 1840, he was assistant professor at West Point, and from 1841 to 1844 was employed on the fortifications in New York Harbor. In 1845 he visited the military establishments of Europe. In the winter of 1845–46 he delivered at the Lowell Institute, Boston, a series of lectures on the science of war, afterwards published in book form with the title of *Elements of Military Art and Science.* He served in California and on the Pacific coast during the war with Mexico, in which he distinguished himself. He was on the staff of Commodore Shubrick at the capture of Mazatlan, and was made lieutenant-governor. From Aug. 13, 1847, to Dec. 20, 1849, he was secretary of the province and Territory of California, and had a large share in preparing the State constitution. He left the army in 1854, and began the practice of law in San Francisco. In August, 1861, he was appointed a major-general of the regular army, and succeeded Frémont in command of the Western Department in November. In 1862 he took command of the army before Corinth, and in July of that year he was appointed general-in-chief, and held that post until superseded by Grant, when he became chief of staff of the army, remaining such till April, 1865, when he was placed in command of the Military Division of the James, with his headquarters at Richmond. In August he was transferred to the Division of the Pacific, and in March, 1869, to that of the South, with headquarters at Louisville, where he died Jan. 9, 1872. General Halleck published several works upon military and scientific topics.

Hallowell, Richard Price, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 16, 1835; removed to Massachusetts in 1859; was identified with the abolition movement; aided the formation of negro regiments during the Civil War. He is the author of *The Quaker Invasion of Massachusetts,* and *The Pioneer Quakers.*

Halpine, Charles Graham, author and soldier; born in Oldcastle, Ireland, Nov. 20, 1829; graduated at Trinity College, Dublin, in 1846; emigrated to the United States in 1850; was connected at various times with the Boston *Post,* New York *Herald,* New York *Times,* New York *Leader,* and New York *Tribune.* He enlisted in the 69th New York Infantry at

the beginning of the Civil War, and reached the rank of brigadier-general. After the war he established the *Citizen*. He was best known under his nom de plume MILES O'REILLY. He was the author of the well-known lyric beginning:

> "Tear down the flaunting lie!
> Half-mast the starry flag!"

He died in New York City, Aug. 3, 1868.

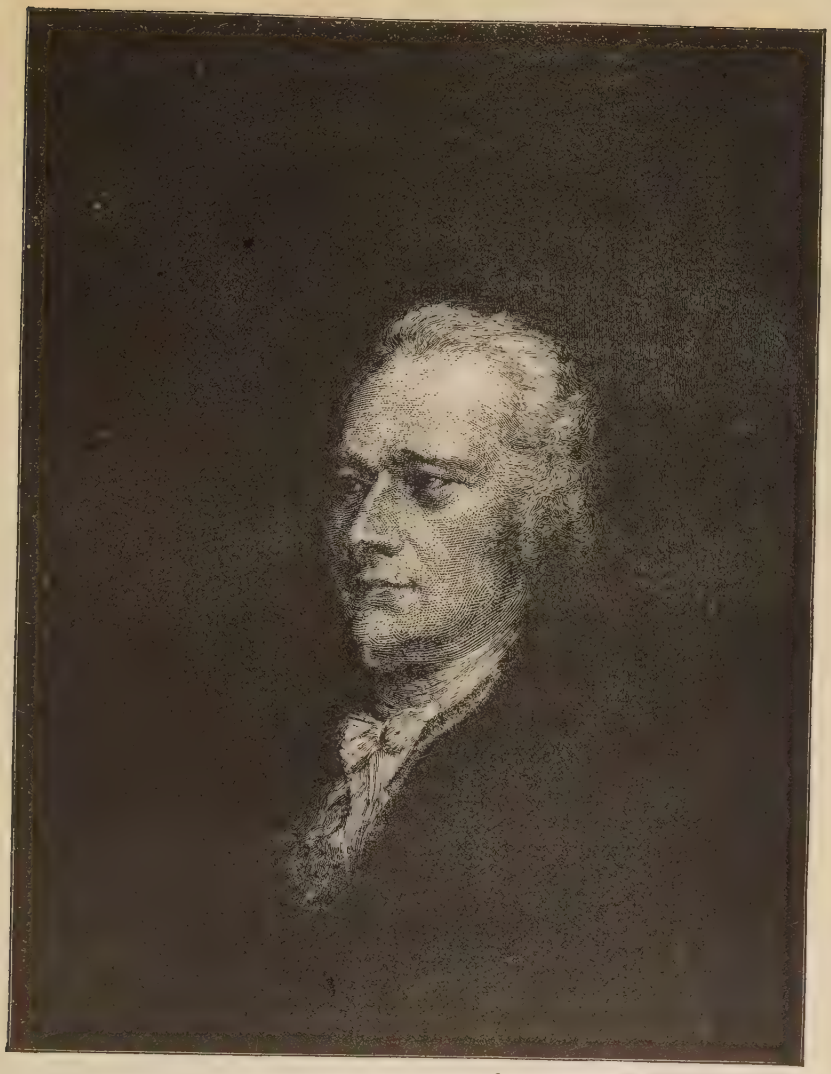
Halsall, WILLIAM FORMBY, artist; born in Kirkdale, England, March 20, 1844; removed to Boston, where he began to study fresco-painting in 1860, but in the following year joined the navy, and served until 1863. Later he devoted himself to marine painting in Boston. His works include *Chasing a Blockade-Runner in a Fog; First Fight of Ironclads, Monitor and Merrimac,* which was purchased by the government and hung in the United States Senate Chamber; *The Mayflower,* now in Memorial Hall, Plymouth, Mass., etc.

Halstead, MURAT, journalist; born in Paddy's Run, O., Sept. 2, 1829; graduated at Farmer's College in 1851; became a journalist and was on the Cincinnati *Commercial* from 1853 until its consolidation with the *Gazette* in 1883, when he became president of the company. In 1890 he became editor of the Brooklyn *Standard-Union.* He is the author of *The Convention of 1860; Life of William McKinley; Story of the Philippines,* etc.

Hamer, THOMAS LEWIS, military officer; born in Pennsylvania about 1800; was admitted to the bar of Ohio in 1821; elected to the Ohio legislature; to Congress in 1833. It was he who nominated Ulysses S. Grant for a cadetship at West Point. During the Mexican War he reached the rank of brigadier-general of volunteers; was wounded at the battle of Monterey, and died there Dec. 2, 1846.

HAMILTON, ALEXANDER

Hamilton, ALEXANDER, statesman; born in Nevis, W. I., Jan. 11, 1757. His father was a Scotchman; his mother, of Huguenot descent. He came to the English-American colonies in 1772, and attended a school kept by Francis Barber at Elizabeth, N. J., and entered King's (Columbia) College in 1773. He made a speech to a popular assemblage in New York City in 1774, when only seventeen years of age, remarkable in every particular, and he aided the patriotic cause by his writings. In March, 1776, he was made captain of artillery, and served at White Plains, Trenton, and Princeton; and in March, 1777, became aide-de-camp to Washington, and his secretary and trusted confidant. He was of great assistance to Washington in his correspondence, and in planning campaigns. In December, 1780, he married a daughter of Gen. Philip Schuyler, and in 1781 he retired from Washington's staff. In July he was appointed to the command of New York troops, with the rank of colonel, and captured by assault a redoubt at Yorktown, Oct. 14, 1781. After the surrender of Cornwallis he left the army; studied law; was a member of Congress (1782–83), and soon took the lead in his profession. He was a member of the New York legislature in 1787, and of the convention at Philadelphia, that year, that framed the national Constitution. With the aid of the able pens of Madison and Jay, Hamilton put forth a series of remarkable essays in favor of the Constitution, which, in book form, bear the name of *The Federalist.* Hamilton wrote the larger half of that work. He was called to the cabinet of Washington as Secretary of the Treasury, and was the founder of the financial system of the republic. Having finished the great work of assisting to put in motion the machinery of the government of the United States, and seeing it in successful working order, he resigned, Jan. 31, 1795, and resumed the practice of law; but his pen was much employed in support of the policy of the national government. When, in 1798, war with France seemed probable, and President Adams appointed Washington commander-in-chief of the armies of the republic, Hamilton was made his second in command, with the rank of major-general. On the death of Washington (December, 1799), Hamilton



A. Hamilton

succeeded him as commander-in-chief, but the provisional army was soon disbanded.

On Sept. 3, 1780, Hamilton wrote to Duane, a member of Congress from New York, and expressed his views on the subject of State supremacy and a national government. He proposed to call for a convention of all the States on Nov. 1 following, with full authority to conclude, finally, upon a general confederation. He traced the cause of the want of power in Congress, and censured that body for its timidity in refusing to assume authority to preserve the infant republic from harm. "Undefined powers," he said, "are discretionary powers,

limited only by the object for which they were given." He said that "some of the lines of the army, but for the influence of Washington, would obey their States in opposition to Congress. . . . Congress should have complete sovereignty in all that relates to war, peace, trade, finance, foreign affairs, armies, fleets, fortifications, coining money, establishing banks, imposing a land-tax, poll-tax, duties on trade, and the unoccupied lands." He proposed that the general government should have power to provide certain perpetual revenues, productive and easy of collection. He claimed the plan of confederation then before Congress to be defective, and urged alteration. "It is neither fit for war," he said, "nor for peace. The idea of an uncontrollable sovereignty in each State will defeat the powers given to Congress, and make our union feeble and precarious." He recommended the appointment of joint officers of state—for foreign affairs, for war, for the navy, and for the treasury—to supersede the "committees" and "boards" hitherto employed; but he neither favored a chief magistrate with supreme executive power, nor two branches in the national legislature. The whole tone of Hamilton's letter was hopeful of the future, though written in his tent, in the midst of a suffering army.

Hamilton was afraid of democracy. He wished to secure for the United States a strong government; and in the convention at Philadelphia in 1787 he presented a plan, the chief features of which were an assembly, to be elected by the people for three years; a senate, to be chosen by electors voted for by the people, to hold office during good behavior; and a governor, also chosen to rule during good behavior by a similar but more complicated process. The governor was to have an absolute negative upon all laws, and the appointment of all officers, subject, however, to the approval of the Senate. The general government was to have the appointment of the governors of the States, and a negative upon all State laws. The Senate was to be invested with the power of declaring war and ratifying treaties. In a speech preliminary to his presentation of this plan, Hamilton expressed doubts as to republican government at all, and his admiration of the English constitution as the best model; nor did he conceal his theoretical preference for monarchy, while he admitted that, in the existing state of public sentiment, it was necessary to adhere to republican forms, but with all the strength possible. He desired a general government strong enough to counterbalance the strength of the State governments and reduce them to subordinate importance.

The first report to the national Congress by the Secretary of the Treasury was waited for with great anxiety not only by the public creditors, but by every thoughtful patriot. It was presented to the House of Representatives Jan. 15, 1790. It embodied a financial scheme, which was generally adopted, and remained the line of financial policy of the new government for more than twenty years. On his recommendation, the national government assumed not only the foreign and domestic debts of the old government, incurred in carrying on the Revolutionary War, as its own, but also the debts contracted by the several States during that period for the general welfare. The foreign debt, with accrued interest, amounting to almost $12,000,000, was due chiefly to France and private lenders in Holland. The domestic debt, including outstanding Continental money and interest, amounted to over $42,000,000, nearly one-third of which was accumulated accrued interest. The State debts assumed amounted in the aggregate to $21,000,000, distributed as follows: New Hampshire, $300,000; Massachusetts, $4,000,000; Rhode Island, $200,000; Connecticut, $1,600,000; New York, $1,200,000; New Jersey, $800,000; Pennsylvania, $2,200,000; Delaware, $200,000; Maryland, $800,000; Virginia, $3,000,000; North Carolina, $2,400,000; South Carolina, $4,000,000; Georgia, $300,000. Long and earnest debates on this report occurred in and out of Congress. There was but one opinion about the foreign debt, and the President was authorized to borrow $12,000,000 to pay it with. As to the domestic debt, there was a wide difference of opinion. The Continental bills, government certificates, and other evidences of debt were mostly held by speculators, who had purchased them at greatly reduced rates; and

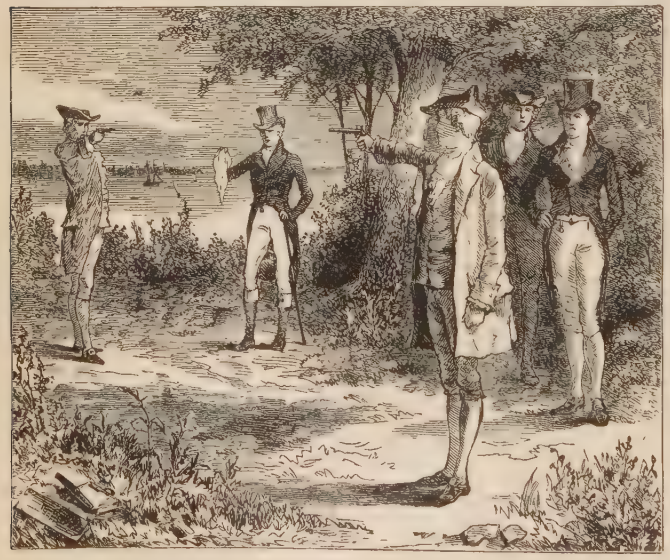
many prominent men thought it would be proper and expedient to apply a scale of depreciation to them, as in the case of the paper money towards the close of the war, in liquidating them.

Hamilton declared such a course would be dishonest and impolitic, and that the public promises should be met in full, in whatever hands the evidences were found. It was the only way, he argued justly, to sustain public credit. He proposed the funding of the public debt in a fair and economical way by which the creditors should receive their promised 6 per cent. until the government should be able to pay the principal. He assumed that in five years, if the government should pursue an honorable course, loans might be made for 5, and even 4, per cent., with which the claims might be met. The propositions of Hamilton, though warmly opposed, were obviously so just that they were agreed to in March (1790), and a new loan was authorized, payable in certificates of the domestic debt at their par value in Continental bills of credit (new issue), at the rate of 100 to 1. Congress also authorized an additional loan to the amount of $21,000,000, payable in certificates of the State debts. A system of revenue from imports and internal excise, proposed by Hamilton, was also adopted.

The persistent and sometimes violent attacks upon the financial policy of the government, sometimes assuming the aspect of personality towards Hamilton, that appeared in Freneau's *National Gazette* in 1792, at length provoked the Secretary of the Treasury to publish a newspaper article, over the signature of "An American," in which attention was called to Freneau's paper as the organ of the Secretary of State, Mr. Jefferson, and edited by a clerk employed in his office. This connection was represented as indelicate, and inconsistent with Jefferson's professions of republican purity. He commented on the inconsistency and indelicacy of Mr. Jefferson in retaining a place in the cabinet when he was opposed to the government he was serving, vilifying its important measures, adopted by both branches of the Congress, and sanctioned by the chief magistrate; and continually casting obstacles in the way of establishing the public credit and providing for the support of the government. The paper concluded with a contrast, as to the effect upon the public welfare, between the policy adopted by the government and that advocated by the party of which Jefferson aspired to be leader. Freneau denied, under oath, that Jefferson had anything to do with his paper, and declared he had never written a line for it. To this "An American" replied that "actions were louder than words or oaths," and charged Jefferson with being "the prompter of the attacks on government measures and the aspersions on honorable men." The papers by "An American" were at once ascribed to Hamilton, and drew out answers from Jefferson's friends. To these Hamilton replied. The quarrel waxed hot. Washington (then at Mount Vernon), as soon as he heard of the newspaper war, tried to bring about a truce between the angry Secretaries. In a letter to Jefferson, Aug. 23, 1792, he said: "How unfortunate and how much to be regretted it is that, while we are encompassed on all sides with avowed enemies and insidious friends, internal dissensions should be harrowing and tearing out our vitals." He portrayed the public injury that such a quarrel would inflict. He wrote to Hamilton to the same effect. Their answers were characteristic of the two men, Jefferson's concluding with an intimation that he should retire from office at the close of Washington's term. Hamilton and Jefferson were never reconciled; personally there was a truce, but politically they were bitter enemies.

In the winter of 1804 Hamilton was in Albany, attending to law business. While there a caucus or consultation was held by the leading Federalists. It was a secret meeting to consult and compare opinions on the question whether the Federalists, as a party, ought to support Aaron Burr for the office of governor of the State of New York. In a bedroom adjoining the closed dining-room in which the caucus was held one or two of Burr's political friends were concealed, and heard every word uttered in the meeting. The characters of men were fully discussed, and Hamilton, in a speech, spoke of Burr as an unsuitable candidate, because no reliance could be placed in him. The spies reported the proceedings to their

principal, and on Feb. 17 a correspondent of the *Morning Chronicle* wrote that at a Federal meeting the night before the "principal part of Hamilton's speech went to show that no reliance ought to be placed in Mr. Burr." In the election which ensued Burr was defeated, and, though Hamilton had taken no part in the canvass, his influence was such that Burr attributed his defeat to him. Burr, defeated and politically ruined, evidently determined on revenge—a revenge that nothing but the life of Hamilton would satiate. Dr. Charles Cooper, of Albany, had dined with Hamilton at the table of Judge Taylor, where Hamilton spoke freely of Burr's *political* conduct and principles only, to which he declared himself hostile. Dr. Cooper, in his zeal, just before the election, in published letters, said: "Hamilton and Kent both consider Burr, politically, as a dangerous man, and unfit for the office of governor." He also wrote that Hamilton and Kent both thought that Burr ought not to be "trusted with the reins of government," and added, "I could detail a still more despicable opinion which Hamilton had expressed of Burr." The latter made these *private* expressions of Hamilton concerning his political character a pretext for a challenge to mortal combat; and, seizing upon the word "despicable," sent a note to Hamilton, demanding "a prompt and unqualified acknowledgment or denial of having said anything which warranted such an expression." Several notes passed between Hamilton and Burr, through the hands of friends, in one of which Hamilton frankly said that "the conversation which Dr. Cooper alluded to turned wholly on political topics, and did not attribute to Colonel Burr any instance of dishonorable conduct, nor relate to his private character; and in relation to any other language or conversation of General Hamilton which Colonel Burr will specify, a prompt and frank avowal or denial will be given." This was all an honorable man could ask. But Burr seemed to thirst for Hamilton's life, and he pressed him to fight a duel in a manner which, in the public opinion which then prevailed concerning the "code of honor," Hamilton could not decline. They fought at Weehawken, July 11, 1804, on the west side of the Hudson River, and Hamilton, who would not discharge his pistol at Burr, for he did not wish to hurt him, was mortally wounded, and died the next day. The public excitement, without regard to party, was intense. Burr fled from New York and became for a while a fugitive from justice. He was politically dead, and bore the burden of scorn and remorse for more than thirty years.



DUEL BETWEEN HAMILTON AND BURR.

Report on the Coinage.—On Jan. 28, 1791, Secretary Hamilton sent the following report to the House of Representatives:

The Secretary of the Treasury having attentively considered the subject referred to

WHERE HAMILTON FELL.

him by the order of the House of Representatives of the 15th of April last, relatively to the establishment of a mint, most respectfully submits the result of his inquiries and reflections.

A plan for an establishment of this nature involves a great variety of considerations—intricate, nice, and important. The general state of debtor and creditor; all the relations and consequences of price; the essential interests of trade and industry; the value of all property; the whole income, both of the State and of the individuals—are liable to be sensibly influenced, beneficially or otherwise, by the judicious or injudicious regulation of this interesting object.

It is one, likewise, not more necessary than difficult to be rightly adjusted; one which has frequently occupied the reflections and researches of politicians, without having harmonized their opinions on some of the most important of the principles which enter into its discussion. Accordingly, different systems continue to be advocated, and the systems of different nations, after much investigation, continue to differ from each other.

But, if a right adjustment of the matter be truly of such nicety and difficulty, a question naturally arises, whether it may not be most advisable to leave things, in this respect, in the state in which they are. Why, might it be asked, since they have so long proceeded in a train which has caused no general sensation of inconvenience, should alterations be attempted, the precise effect of which cannot with certainty be calculated?

The answer to this question is not perplexing. The immense disorder which actually reigns in so delicate and important a concern, and the still greater disorder which is every moment possible, call loudly for a reform. The dollar originally contemplated in the money transactions of this country, by successive diminutions of its weight and fineness, has sustained a depreciation of 5 per cent.; and yet the new dollar has a currency in all payments in place of the old, with scarcely any attention to the difference between them. The operation of this in depreciating the value of property, depending upon past contracts, and (as far as inattention to the alteration in the coin may be supposed to leave prices stationary) of all other property is apparent. Nor can it require argument to prove that a nation ought not to suffer the value of the property of its citizens to fluctuate with the fluctuations of a foreign mint and to change with the changes in the regulations of a foreign sovereign. This, nevertheless, is the condition of one which, having no coins of its own, adopts with implicit confidence those of other countries.

The unequal values allowed in different parts of the Union to coins of the same

intrinsic worth, the defective species of them which embarrass the circulation of some of the States, and the dissimilarity in their several moneys of account, are inconveniences which, if not to be ascribed to the want of a national coinage, will at least be most effectually remedied by the establishment of one,—a measure that will at the same time give additional security against impositions by counterfeit as well as by base currencies.

It was with great reason, therefore, that the attention of Congress, under the late Confederation, was repeatedly drawn to the establishment of a mint; and it is with equal reason that the subject has been resumed, now that the favorable change which has taken place in the situation of public affairs admits of its being carried into execution.

But, though the difficulty of devising a proper establishment ought not to deter from undertaking so necessary a work, yet it cannot but inspire diffidence in one whose duty it is made to propose a plan for the purpose, and may perhaps be permitted to be relied upon as some excuse for any errors which may be chargeable upon it, or for any deviations from sounder principles which may have been suggested by others or even in part acted upon by the former government of the United States.

In order to form a right judgment of what ought to be done, the following particulars require to be discussed:—

1st. What ought to be the nature of the money unit of the United States?

2d. What the proportion between gold and silver, if coins of both metals are to be established?

3d. What the proportion and composition of alloy in each kind?

4th. Whether the expense of coinage shall be defrayed by the government or out of the material itself?

5th. What shall be the number, denominations, sizes, and devices of the coins?

6th. Whether foreign coins shall be permitted to be current or not; if the former, at what rate, and for what period?

A prerequisite to determining with propriety what ought to be the money unit of the United States is to endeavor to form as accurate an idea as the nature of the case will admit of what it actually is. The pound, though of various value, is the unit in the money account of all the States. But it is not equally easy to pronounce what is to be considered as the unit in the coins. There being no formal regulation on the point (the resolutions of Congress of the 6th of July, 1785, and 8th of August, 1786, having never yet been carried into operation), it can only be inferred from usage or practice. The manner of adjusting foreign exchanges would seem to indicate the dollar as best entitled to that character. In these the old piaster of Spain or old Seville piece of eight *reals*, of the value of four shillings and sixpence sterling, is evidently contemplated. The computed par between Great Britain and Pennsylvania will serve as an example. According to that, one hundred pounds sterling is equal to one hundred and sixty-six pounds and two-thirds of a pound, Pennsylvania currency; which corresponds with the proportion between 4*s.* 6*d.* sterling and 7*s.* 6*d.*, the current value of the dollar in that State by invariable usage. And, as far as the information of the Secretary goes, the same comparison holds in the other States.

But this circumstance in favor of the dollar loses much of its weight from two considerations. That species of coin has never had any settled or standard value, according to weight or fineness, but has been permitted to circulate by tale, without regard to either, very much as a mere money of convenience, while gold has had a fixed price by weight, and with an eye to its fineness. This greater stability of value of the gold coins is an argument of force for regarding the money unit as having been hitherto virtually attached to gold rather than to silver.

Twenty-four grains and six-eighths of a grain of fine gold have corresponded with the nominal value of the dollar in the several States, without regard to the successive diminutions of its intrinsic worth.

But if the dollar should, notwithstanding, be supposed to have the best title to being considered as the present unit in the coins, it would remain to determine what kind of dollar ought to be understood; or, in other words, what precise quantity of fine silver.

The old piaster of Spain, which appears to have regulated our foreign exchanges, weighed 17 dwt. 12 grains, and contained 386 grains and 15 mites of fine silver. But this piece has been long since out of circulation. The dollars now in common currency are of recent date, and much inferior to that both in weight and fineness. The average weight of them upon different trials in large masses has been found to be 17 dwt. 8 grains. Their fineness is less precisely ascertained, the results of various assays, made by different persons, under the direction of the late superintendent of the finances and of the Secretary, being as various as the assays themselves. The difference between their extremes is not less than 24 grains in a dollar of the same weight and age, which is too much for any probable difference in the pieces. It is rather to be presumed that a degree of inaccuracy had been occasioned by the want of proper apparatus and, in general, of practice. The experiment which appears to have the best pretensions to exactness would make the new dollar to contain 370 grains and 933 thousandth parts of a grain of pure silver.

According to an authority on which the Secretary places reliance, the standard of Spain for its silver coin, in the year 1761, was 261 parts fine and 27 parts alloy, at which proportion a dollar of 17 dwt. 8 grains would consist of 377 grains of fine silver and 39 grains of alloy. But there is no question that this standard has been since altered considerably for the worse,—to what precise point is not as well ascertained as could be wished; but, from a computation of the value of dollars in the markets both of Amsterdam and London (a criterion which cannot materially mislead) the new dollar appears to contain about 368 grains of fine silver, and that which immediately preceded it about 374 grains.

In this state of things there is some difficulty in defining the dollar which is to be understood as constituting the present money unit, on the supposition of its being most applicable to that species of coin. The old Seville piece of 386 grains and 15 mites fine comports best with the computations of foreign exchanges, and with the more ancient contracts respecting landed property; but far the greater number of contracts still in operation concerning that kind of property and all those of a merely personal nature now in force must be referred to a dollar of a different kind. The actual dollar, at the time of contracting, is the only one which can be supposed to have been intended; and it has been seen that, as long ago as the year 1761, there had been a material degradation of the standard. And even in regard to the more ancient contracts, no person has ever had any idea of a scruple about receiving the dollar of the day as a full equivalent for the nominal sum which the dollar originally imported.

A recurrence, therefore, to the ancient dollar would be in the greatest number of cases an innovation *in fact*, and in all an innovation in respect to opinion. The actual dollar in common circulation has evidently a much better claim to be regarded as the actual money unit.

The mean intrinsic value of the different kinds of known dollars has been intimated as affording the proper criterion. But, when it is recollected that the more ancient and more valuable ones are not now to be met with at all in circulation, and that the mass of those generally current is composed of the newest and most inferior kinds, it will be perceived that even an equation of that nature would be a considerable innovation upon the real present state of things, which it will certainly be prudent to approach, as far as may be consistent with the permanent order designed to be introduced.

An additional reason for considering the prevailing dollar as the standard of the present money unit rather than the ancient one is that it will not only be conformable to the true existing proportion between the two metals in this country, but will be more conformable to that which obtains in the commercial world generally.

The difference established by custom in the United States between coined gold and coined silver has been stated upon another occasion to be nearly as 1 to 15.6. This, if truly the case, would imply that gold was extremely overvalued in the United States; for the highest *actual proportion* in any part of Europe very little, if at all, exceeds 1 to 15, and the average propor-

tion throughout Europe is probably not more than about 1 to 14⁴/₅. But that statement has proceeded upon the idea of the ancient dollar. One pennyweight of gold of twenty-two carats fine at 6*s*. 8*d*. and the old Seville piece of 386 grains and 15 mites of pure silver at 7*s*. 6*d*. furnish the exact ratio of 1 to 15.6262. But this does not coincide with the real difference between the metals in our market or, which is with us the same thing, in our currency. To determine this, the quantity of fine silver in the general mass of the dollars now in circulation must afford the rule. Taking the rate of the late dollar of 374 grains, the proportion would be as 1 to 15.11. Taking the rate of the newest dollar, the proportion would then be as 1 to 14.87. The mean of the two would give the proportion of 1 to 15 very nearly: less than the legal proportions in the coins of Great Britain, which is as 1 to 15.2; but somewhat more than the actual or market proportion, which is not quite 1 to 15.

The preceding view of the subject does not indeed afford a precise or certain definition of the present unit in the coins, but it furnishes data which will serve as guides in the progress of the investigation. It ascertains, at least, that the sum in the money of account of each State, corresponding with the nominal value of the dollar in such State, corresponds also with 24 grains and ⁸/₈ of a grain of fine gold, and with something between 368 and 374 grains of fine silver.

The next inquiry towards a right determination of what ought to be the future money unit of the United States turns upon these questions: Whether it ought to be peculiarly attached to either of the metals in preference to the other or not; and, if to either, to which of them?

The suggestions and proceedings, hitherto, have had for object the annexing of it emphatically to the silver dollar. A resolution of Congress of the 6th of July, 1785, declares that the money unit of the United States shall be a dollar; and another resolution of the 8th of August, 1786, fixes that dollar at 375 grains and 64 hundredths of a grain of fine silver. The same resolution, however, determines that there shall also be two gold coins, one of 246 grains and 268 parts of a grain of pure gold, equal to ten dollars, and the other of half that quantity of pure gold, equal to five dollars. And it is not explained whether either of the two species of coins, of gold, or silver, shall have any greater legality in payments than the other. Yet it would seem that a preference in this particular is necessary to execute the idea of attaching the unit exclusively to one kind. If each of them be as valid as the other in payments to any amount, it is not obvious in what effectual sense either of them can be deemed the money unit rather than the other.

If the general declaration, that the dollar shall be the money unit of the United States, could be understood to give it a superior legality in payments, the institution of coins of gold and the declaration that each of them shall be *equal* to a certain number of dollars, would appear to destroy that inference. And the circumstance of making the dollar the unit in the money of account seems to be rather matter of form than of substance.

Contrary to the ideas which have heretofore prevailed in the suggestions concerning a coinage for the United States, though not without much hesitation, arising from a deference for those ideas, the Secretary is, upon the whole, strongly inclined to the opinion that a preference ought to be given to neither of the metals for the money unit. Perhaps, if either were to be preferred, it ought to be gold rather than silver.

The reasons are these:—

The inducement to such a preference is to render the unit as little variable as possible, because on this depends the steady value of all contracts and, in a certain sense, of all other property. And it is truly observed that, if the unit belong indiscriminately to both the metals, it is subject to all the fluctuations that happen in the relative value which they bear to each other. But the same reason would lead to annexing it to that particular one which is itself the least liable to variation, if there be in this respect any discernible difference between the two.

Gold may perhaps, in certain senses, be said to have greater stability than silver, as, being of superior value, less liberties

have been taken with it in the regulations of different countries. Its standard has remained more uniform, and it has in other respects undergone fewer changes, as, being not so much an article of merchandise, owing to the use made of silver in the trade with the East Indies and China, it is less liable to be influenced by circumstances of commercial demand. And if, reasoning by analogy, it could be affirmed that there is a physical probability of greater proportional increase in the quantity of silver than in that of gold, it would afford an additional reason for calculating on greater steadiness in the value of the latter.

As long as gold, either from its intrinsic superiority as a metal, from its greater rarity, or from the prejudices of mankind, retains so considerable a preeminence in value over silver as it has hitherto had, a natural consequence of this seems to be that its condition will be more stationary. The revolutions, therefore, which may take place in the comparative value of gold and silver will be changes in the state of the latter rather than in that of the former.

If there should be an appearance of too much abstraction in any of these ideas, it may be remarked that the first and most simple impressions do not naturally incline to giving a preference to the inferior or less valuable of the two metals.

It is sometimes observed that silver ought to be encouraged rather than gold, as being more conducive to the extension of bank circulation, from the greater difficulty and inconvenience which its greater bulk compared with its value occasions in the transportation of it. But bank circulation is desirable rather as *an auxiliary to* than as *a substitute for* that of the precious metals, and ought to be left to its natural course. Artificial expedients to extend it by opposing obstacles to the other are, at least, not recommended by any very obvious advantages. And, in general, it is the safest rule to regulate every particular institution or object according to the principles which in relation to itself appear the most sound. In addition to this, it may be observed that the inconvenience of transporting either of the metals is sufficiently great to induce a preference of bank paper whenever it can be made to answer the purpose equally well.

But, upon the whole, it seems to be most advisable, as has been observed, not to attach the unit exclusively to either of the metals, because this cannot be done effectually without destroying the office and character of one of them as money and reducing it to the situation of a mere merchandise, which accordingly, at different times, has been proposed from different and very respectable quarters, but which would, probably, be a greater evil than occasional variations in the unit from the fluctuations in the relative value of the metals, especially if care be taken to regulate the proportion between them with an eye to their average commercial value.

To annul the use of either of the metals as money is to abridge the quantity of circulating medium, and is liable to all the objections which arise from a comparison of the benefits of a full with the evils of a scanty circulation.

It is not a satisfactory answer to say that none but the favored metal would in this case find its way into the country, as in that all balances must be paid. The practicability of this would, in some measure, depend on the abundance or scarcity of it in the country paying. Where there was but little, it either would not be procurable at all or it would cost a premium to obtain it, which in every case of a competition with others in a branch of trade would constitute a deduction from the profits of the party receiving. Perhaps, too, the embarrassments which such a circumstance might sometimes create in the pecuniary liquidation of balances might lead to additional efforts to find a substitute in commodities, and might so far impede the introduction of the metals. Neither could the exclusion of either of them be deemed in other respects favorable to commerce. It is often in the course of trade as desirable to possess the kind of money as the kind of commodities best adapted to a foreign market.

It seems, however, most probable that the chief, if not the sole, effects of such a regulation would be to diminish the utility of one of the metals. It could hardly prove an obstacle to the introduction of that which was excluded in the natural

course of trade, because it would always command a ready sale for the purpose of exportation to foreign markets. But such an effect, if the only one, is not to be regarded as a trivial inconvenience.

If, then, the unit ought not to be attached exclusively to either of the metals, the proportion which ought to subsist between them in the coins becomes a preliminary inquiry in order to its proper adjustment. This proportion appears to be in several views of no inconsiderable moment.

One consequence of overvaluing either metal in respect to the other is the banishment of that which is undervalued. If two countries are supposed, in one of which the proportion of gold to silver is as 1 to 16, in the other as 1 to 15, gold being worth more, silver less, in one than in the other, it is manifest that, in their reciprocal payments, each will select that species which it values least to pay to the other, where it is valued most. Besides this the dealers in money will, from the same cause, often find a profitable traffic in an exchange of the metals between the two countries. And hence it would come to pass, if other things were equal, that the greatest part of the gold would be collected in one, and the greatest part of the silver in the other. The course of trade might, in some degree, counteract the tendency of the difference in the legal proportions, by the market value; but this is so far and so often influenced by the legal rates that it does not prevent their producing the effect which is inferred. Facts, too, verify the inference. In Spain and England, where gold is rated higher than in other parts of Europe, there is a scarcity of silver; while it is found to abound in France and Holland, where it is rated higher in proportion to gold than in the neighboring nations. And it is continually flowing from Europe to China and the East Indies, owing to the comparative cheapness of it in the former, and dearness of it in the latter.

This consequence is deemed by some not very material, and there are even persons who from a fanciful predilection to gold are willing to invite it even by a higher price. But general utility will best be promoted by a due proportion of both metals. If gold be most convenient in large payments, silver is best adapted to the more minute and ordinary circulation.

But it is to be suspected that there is another consequence more serious than the one which has been mentioned. This is the diminution of the total quantity of specie which a country would naturally possess.

It is evident that as often as a country which overrates either of the metals receives a payment in that metal, it gets a less actual quantity than it ought to do or than it would do if the rate were a just one.

It is also equally evident that there will be a continual effort to make payment to it in that specie to which it has annexed an exaggerated estimation wherever it is current at a less proportional value. And it would seem to be a very natural effect of these two causes, not only that the mass of the precious metals in the country in question would consist chiefly of that kind to which it had given an extraordinary *value*, but that it would be absolutely less than if they had been duly proportioned to each other.

A conclusion of this sort, however, is to be drawn with great caution. In such matters there are always some local and many other particular circumstances which qualify and vary the operation of general principles, even where they are just; and there are endless combinations, very difficult to be analyzed, which often render principles that have the most plausible pretensions unsound and delusive.

There ought, for instance, according to those which have been stated, to have been formerly a greater quantity of gold in proportion to silver in the United States than there has been, because the actual value of gold in this country compared with silver was perhaps higher than in any other. But our situation with regard to the West Indian Islands, into some of which there is a large influx of silver directly from the mines of South America, occasions an extraordinary supply of that metal, and consequently a greater proportion of it in our circulation than might have been expected from its relative value.

What influence the proportion under consideration may have upon the state of prices and how far this may counteract

its tendency to increase or lessen the quantity of the metals, are points not easy to be developed; and yet they are very necessary to an accurate judgment of the true operation of the thing.

But, however impossible it may be to pronounce with certainty that the possession of a less quantity of specie is a consequence of overvaluing either of the metals, there is enough of probability in the considerations which seem to indicate it to form an argument of weight against such overvaluation.

A third ill consequence resulting from it is a greater and more frequent disturbance of the state of the money unit by a greater and more frequent diversity between the legal and market proportions of the metals. This has not hitherto been experienced in the United States, but it has been experienced elsewhere; and from its not having been felt by us hitherto it does not follow that this will not be the case hereafter, when our commerce shall have attained a maturity which will place it under the influence of more fixed principles.

In establishing a proportion between the metals, there seems to be an option of one or two things:—

To approach as nearly as can be ascertained the mean or average proportion in what may be called the commercial world; or

To retain that which now exists in the United States.

As far as these happen to coincide, they will render the course to be pursued more plain and more certain.

To ascertain the first with precision would require better materials than are possessed or than could be obtained without an inconvenient delay.

Sir Isaac Newton, in a representation to the treasury of Great Britain, in the year 1717, after stating the particular proportions in the different countries of Europe, concludes thus: "By the course of trade and exchange between nation and nation in all Europe fine gold is to fine silver as $14^4/_5$ or 15 to 1."

But however accurate and decisive this authority may be deemed in relation to the period to which it applies, it cannot be taken at the distance of more than seventy years as a rule for determining the existing proportion. Alterations have been since made in the regulations of their coins by several nations, which, as well as the course of trade, have an influence upon the market values. Nevertheless, there is reason to believe that the state of the matter as represented by Sir Isaac Newton is not very remote from its actual state.

In Holland, the greatest *money* market of Europe, gold was to silver, in December, 1789, as 1 to 14.88; and in that of London it has been for some time past but little different, approaching, perhaps, something nearer 1 to 15.

It has been seen that the existing proportion between the two metals in this country is about as 1 to 15.

It is fortunate, in this respect, that the innovations of the Spanish mint have imperceptibly introduced a proportion so analogous as this is to that which prevails among the principal commercial nations, as it greatly facilitates a proper regulation of the matter.

This proportion of 1 to 15 is recommended by the particular situation of our trade, as being very nearly that which obtains in the market of Great Britain, to which nation our specie is principally exported. A lower rate for either of the metals, in our market than in hers, might not only afford a motive the more, in certain cases, to remit in specie rather than in commodities; but it might, in some others, cause us to pay a greater quantity of it for a given sum than we should otherwise do. If the effect should rather be to occasion a premium to be given for the metal which was underrated, this would obviate those disadvantages; but it would involve another—a customary difference between the market and legal proportions which would amount to a species of disorder in the national coinage.

Looking forward to the payments of interest hereafter to be made to Holland the same proportion does not appear ineligible. The present legal proportion in the coins of Holland is stated to be 1 to $14^9/_{10}$. That of the market varies somewhat at different times, but seldom very widely from this point.

There can hardly be a better rule, in any country, for the legal than the market proportion, if this can be supposed to

have been produced by the free and steady course of commercial principles. The presumption, in such case, is that each metal finds its true level, according to its intrinsic utility in the general system of money operations.

But it must be admitted that this argument in favor of continuing the existing proportion is not applicable to the state of the coins with us. There have been too many artificial and heterogeneous ingredients, too much want of order in the pecuniary transactions of this country, to authorize the attributing the effects which have appeared to the regular operations of commerce. A proof of this is to be drawn from the alterations which have happened in the proportion between the metals merely by the successive degradations of the dollar in consequence of the mutability of a foreign mint. The value of gold to silver appears to have declined wholly from this cause from $15^{6}/_{10}$ to about 15 to 1. Yet, as this last proportion, however produced, coincides so nearly with what may be deemed the commercial average, it may be supposed to furnish as good a rule as can be pursued.

The only question seems to be whether the value of gold ought not to be a little lowered to bring it to a more exact level with the two markets which have been mentioned. But, as the ratio of 1 to 15 is so nearly conformable to the state of those markets and best agrees with that of our own, it will probably be found the most eligible. If the market of Spain continues to give a higher value to gold (as it has done in time past) than that which is recommended, there may be some advantage in a middle station.

A further preliminary to the adjustment of the future money unit is to determine what shall be the proportion and composition of alloy in each species of the coins.

The first, by the resolution of the 8th of August, 1786, before referred to, is regulated at one-twelfth, or, in other words, at 1 part alloy to 11 parts fine, whether gold or silver, which appears to be a convenient rule, unless there should be some collateral consideration which may dictate a departure from it. Its correspondency in regard to both metals is a recommendation of it, because a difference could answer no purpose of pecuniary or commercial utility, and uniformity is favorable to order.

This ratio as it regards gold coincides with the proportion, real or professed, in the coins of Portugal, England, France, and Spain. In those of the two former it is real: in those of the two latter there is a deduction for what is called *remedy of weight and alloy*, which is in the nature of an allowance to the master of the mint for errors and imperfections in the process, rendering the coin either lighter or baser than it ought to be. The same thing is known in the theory of the English mint, where $^{1}/_{6}$ of a carat is allowed. But the difference seems to be that *there* it is merely an occasional indemnity within a certain limit for real and unavoidable errors and imperfections, whereas, in the practice of the mints of France and Spain, it appears to amount to a stated and regular deviation from the nominal standard. Accordingly, the real standards of France and Spain are something worse than 22 carats, or 11 parts in 12 fine.

The principal gold coins in Germany, Holland, Sweden, Denmark, Poland, and Italy, are finer than those of England and Portugal, in different degrees, from 1 carat and ¼ to 1 carat and ⅞, which last is within ⅛ of a carat of pure gold.

There are similar diversities in the standards of the silver coins of the different countries of Europe. That of Great Britain is 222 parts fine to 18 alloy: those of the other European nations vary from that of Great Britain as widely as from about 17 of the same parts better to 75 worse.

The principal reasons assigned for the use of alloy are the saving of expense in the refining of the metals (which in their natural state are usually mixed with a portion of the coarser kinds) and the rendering of them harder as a security against too great waste by friction or wearing. The first reason drawn from the original composition of the metals is strengthened at present by the practice of alloying their coins, which has obtained among so many nations. The reality of the effect to which the last reason is applicable has been denied, and experience

has been appealed to as proving that the more alloyed coins wear faster than the purer. The true state of this matter may be worthy of future investigation, though first appearances are in favor of alloy. In the mean time the saving of trouble and expense are sufficient inducements to following those examples which suppose its expediency. And the same considerations lead to taking as our models those nations with whom we have most intercourse and whose coins are most prevalent in our circulation. These are Spain, Portugal, England, and France. The relation which the proposed proportion bears to their gold coins has been explained. In respect to their silver coins, it will not be very remote from the mean of their several standards.

The component ingredients of the alloy in each metal will also require to be regulated. In silver, copper is the only kind in use, and it is doubtless the only proper one. In gold there is a mixture of silver and copper, in the English coins consisting of equal parts, in the coins of some other countries varying from $^1/_{12}$ to $^2/_{12}$ silver.

The reason of this union of silver with copper is this: the silver counteracts the tendency of the copper to injure the color or beauty of the coin by giving it too much redness, or rather a coppery hue, which a small quantity will produce; and the copper prevents the too great whiteness which silver alone would confer. It is apprehended that there are considerations which may render it prudent to establish by law that the proportion of silver to copper in the gold coins of the United States, shall not be more than $^1/_2$ nor less than $^1/_{12}$ vesting direction in some proper place to regulate the matter within those limits, as experience in the execution may recommend.

A third point remains to be discussed as a prerequisite to the determination of the money unit, which is whether the expense of coining shall be defrayed by the public or out of the material itself, or, as it is sometimes stated, whether coinage shall be free or shall be subject to a duty or imposition. This forms, perhaps, one of the nicest questions in the doctrine of money.

The practice of different nations is dissimilar in this particular. In England coinage is said to be entirely free, the mint price of the metals in bullion being the same with the value of them in coin. In France there is a duty which has been, if it is not now, 8 per cent. In Holland there is a difference between the mint price and the value in the coins, which has been computed at .96 or something less than 1 per cent. upon gold, at 1.48 or something less than $1^1/_2$ per cent. upon silver. The resolution of the 8th of August, 1786, proceeds upon the idea of a deduction of $^1/_2$ per cent. from gold and of 2 per cent. from silver as an indemnification for the expense of coining. This is inferred from a report of the late Board of Treasury, upon which that resolution appears to have been founded.

Upon the supposition that the expense of coinage ought to be defrayed out of the metals, there are two ways in which it may be effected—one by a reduction of the quantity of fine gold and silver in the coins, the other by establishing a difference between the value of those metals in the coins and the mint price of them in bullion.

The first method appears to the Secretary inadmissible. He is unable to distinguish an operation of this sort from that of raising the denomination of the coin—a measure which has been disapproved by the wisest men of the nations in which it has been practised and condemned by the rest of the world. To declare that a less weight of gold or silver shall pass for the same sum which before represented a greater weight or to ordain that the same weight shall pass for a greater sum are things substantially of one nature. The consequence of either of them, if the change can be realized, is to degrade the money unit, obliging creditors to receive less than their just dues and depreciating property of every kind. For it is manifest that everything would in this case be represented by a less quantity of gold and silver than before.

It is sometimes observed, on this head, that, though any article of property might, in fact, be represented by a less actual quantity of pure metal, it would, nevertheless, be represented by something

of the same intrinsic value. Every fabric, it is remarked, is worth intrinsically the price of the raw material and the expense of fabrication—a truth not less applicable to a piece of coin than to a yard of cloth.

This position, well founded in itself, is here misapplied. It supposes that the coins now in circulation are to be considered as bullion, or, in other words, as raw material. But the fact is that the adoption of them as money has caused them to become the fabric: it has invested them with the character and office of coins, and has given them a sanction and efficacy equivalent to that of the stamp of the sovereign. The prices of all our commodities at home and abroad, and of all foreign commodities in our markets, have found their level in conformity to this principle. The foreign coins may be *divested* of the privilege they have hitherto been permitted to enjoy, and may of course be *left* to find their value in the market as a raw material. But the quantity of gold and silver in the national coins corresponding with a given sum cannot be made less than heretofore without disturbing the balance of intrinsic value, and making every acre of land as well as every bushel of wheat of less actual worth than in time past. If the United States were isolated and cut off from all intercourse with the rest of mankind, this reasoning would not be equally conclusive. But it appears decisive when considered with a view to the relations which commerce has created between us and other countries.

It is, however, not improbable that the effect meditated would be defeated by a rise of prices proportioned to the diminution of the intrinsic value of the coins. This might be looked for in every enlightened commercial country, but, perhaps, in none with greater certainty than this, because in none are men less liable to be the dupes of sounds, in none has authority so little resource for substituting names for things.

A general revolution in prices, though only nominally and in appearance, could not fail to distract the ideas of the community, and would be apt to breed discontent as well among all those who live on the income of their money as among the poorer classes of the people, to whom the necessaries of life would seem to have become dearer. In the confusion of such a state of things ideas of value would not improbably adhere to the old coins, which, from that circumstance, instead of feeling the effect of the loss of their privilege as money, would, perhaps, bear a price in the market relatively to the new ones in exact proportion to weight. The frequency of the demand for the metals to pay foreign balances would contribute to this effect.

Among the evils attendant on such an operation are these: creditors both of the public and of individuals would lose a part of their property, public and private credit would receive a wound, the effective revenues of the government would be diminished. There is scarcely any point in the economy of national affairs of greater moment than the uniform preservation of the intrinsic value of the money unit. On this the security and steady value of property essentially depend.

The second method, therefore, of defraying the expense of the coinage out of the metals is greatly to be preferred to the other. This is to let the same sum of money continue to represent in the new coins exactly the same quantity of gold and silver as it does in those now current; to allow at the mint such a price only for those metals as will admit of profit just sufficient to satisfy the expense of coinage; to abolish the legal currency of the foreign coins, both in public and private payments; and of course to leave the superior utility of the national coins for domestic purposes, to operate the difference of market value, which is necessary to induce the bringing of bullion to the mint. In this case all property and labor will still be represented by the same quantity of gold and silver as formerly; and the only change which will be wrought will consist in annexing the office of money exclusively to the national coins, consequently withdrawing it from those of foreign countries, and suffering them to become, as they ought to be, mere articles of merchandise.

The arguments in favor of a regulation of this kind are:

First. That the want of it is a cause of extra expense. There being, then, no motive of individual interest to distin-

guish between the national coins and bullion, they are, it is alleged, indiscriminately melted down for domestic manufactures, and exported for the purposes of foreign trade; and it is added that, when the coins become light by wearing, the same quantity of fine gold or silver bears a higher price in bullion than in the coins, in which state of things the melting down of the coins to be sold as bullion is attended with profit; and from both causes the expense of the mint, or, in other words, the expense of maintaining the specie capital of the nation, is materially augmented.

Secondly. That the existence of such a regulation promotes a favorable course of exchange and benefits trade not only by that circumstance, but by obliging foreigners in certain cases to pay dearer for domestic commodities and to sell their own cheaper.

As far as relates to the tendency of a free coinage to produce an increase of expense in the different ways that have been stated, the argument must be allowed to have foundation both in reason and in experience. It describes what has been exemplified in Great Britain.

The effect of giving an artificial value to bullion is not at first sight obvious; but it actually happened at the period immediately preceding the late reformation in the gold coin of the country just named. A pound troy in gold bullion of standard fineness was then from 19*s.* 6*d.* to 25*s.* sterling dearer than an equal weight of guineas as delivered at the mint. The phenomenon is thus accounted for: The old guineas were more than 2 per cent. lighter than their *standard weight.* This *weight,* therefore, in bullion, was truly worth 2 per cent. more than those guineas. It consequently had in respect to them a correspondent rise in the market.

And, as guineas were then current by *tale,* the new ones, as they issued from the mint, were confounded in circulation with the old ones, and by the association were depreciated below the intrinsic value in comparison with bullion. It became, of course, a profitable traffic to sell bullion for coin, to select the light pieces and reissue them in currency, and to melt down the heavy ones and sell them again as bullion. This practice, besides other inconveniences, cost the government large sums in the renewal of the coins.

But the remainder of the argument stands upon ground far more questionable. It depends upon very numerous and very complex combinations, in which there is infinite latitude for fallacy and error.

The most plausible part of it is that which relates to the course of exchange. Experience in France has shown that the market price of bullion has been influenced by the mint difference between that and coin, sometimes to the full extent of the difference; and it would seem to be a clear inference that, whenever that difference materially exceeded the charges of remitting bullion from the country where it existed to another in which coinage is free, exchange would be in favor of the former.

If, for instance, the balance of trade between France and England were at any time equal, their merchants would naturally have reciprocal payments to make to an equal amount, which, as usual, would be liquidated by means of bills of exchange. If in this situation the difference between coin and bullion should be in the market as at the mint of France 8 per cent., if also the charges of transporting money from France to England should not be above 2 per cent., and if exchange should be at par, it is evident that a profit of 6 per cent. might be made by sending bullion from France to England and drawing bills for the amount. One hundred louis d'ors in coin would purchase the weight of one hundred and eight in bullion, one hundred of which remitted to England would suffice to pay a debt of an equal amount; and, two being paid for the charges of insurance and transportation, there would remain six for the benefit of the person who should manage the negotiation. But, as so large a profit could not fail to produce competition, the bills in consequence of this would decrease in price till the profit was reduced to the *minimum* of an adequate recompense for the trouble and risk. And, as the amount of one hundred louis d'ors in England might be afforded for ninety-six in France with a profit of more than 1½ per cent., bills upon England might fall in France to 4 per cent. below par, 1 per cent. being a sufficient profit to the

exchanger or broker for the management of the business.

But it is *admitted* that this advantage is lost when the balance of trade is against the nation which imposes the duty in question, because by increasing the demand for bullion it brings this to a par with the coins; and it is to be *suspected* that, where commercial principles have their free scope and are well understood, the market difference between the metals in coin and bullion will seldom approximate to that of the mint, if the latter be considerable. It must be not a little difficult to keep the money of the world, which can be employed to an equal purpose in the commerce of the world, in a state of degradation in comparison with the money of a particular country.

This alone would seem sufficient to prevent it. Whenever the price of coin to bullion in the market materially exceeded the par of the metals, it would become an object to send the bullion abroad, if not to pay a foreign balance, to be invested in some other way in foreign countries where it bore a superior value—an operation by which immense fortunes might be amassed, if it were not that the exportation of the bullion would of itself restore the intrinsic par. But, as it would naturally have this effect, the advantage supposed would contain in itself the principle of its own destruction. As long, however, as the exportation of bullion could be made with profit, which is as long as exchange could remain below par, there would be a drain of the gold and silver of the country.

If anything can maintain for a length of time a material difference between the value of the metals in coin and in bullion, it must be a constant and considerable balance of trade in favor of the country in which it is maintained. In one situated like the United States, it would in all probability be a hopeless attempt. The frequent demand for gold and silver to pay balances to foreigners would tend powerfully to preserve the equilibrium of intrinsic value.

The prospect is that it would occasion foreign coins to circulate by common consent nearly at par with the national.

To say that as far as the effect of lowering exchange is produced, though it be only occasional and momentary, there is a benefit the more thrown into the scale of public prosperity, is not satisfactory. It has been seen that it may be productive of one evil, the investment of a part of the national capital in foreign countries, which can hardly be beneficial but in a situation like that of the United Netherlands, where an immense capital and a decrease of internal demand render it necessary to find employment for money in the wants of other nations; and perhaps on a close examination other evils may be descried.

One allied to that which has been mentioned is this—taking France for the sake of more concise illustration as the scene: Whenever it happens that French louis d'ors are sent abroad from whatever cause, if there be a considerable difference between coin and bullion in the market of France, it will constitute an advantageous traffic to send back these louis d'ors and bring away bullion in lieu of them, upon all which exchanges France must sustain an actual loss of a part of its gold and silver.

Again, such a difference between coin and bullion may tend to counteract a favorable balance of trade. Whenever a foreign merchant is the carrier of his own commodities to France for sale, he has a strong inducement to bring back specie instead of French commodities, because a return in the latter may afford no profit, may even be attended with loss. In the former it will afford a certain profit. The same principle must be supposed to operate in the general course of remittances from France to other countries. The principal question with a merchant naturally is, In what manner can I realize a given sum with most advantage where I wish to place it? And, in cases in which other commodities are not likely to produce equal profit with bullion, it may be expected that this will be preferred, to which the greater certainty attending the operation must be an additional incitement. There can hardly be imagined a circumstance less friendly to trade than the existence of an extra inducement arising from the possibility of a profitable speculation upon the articles themselves to export from a country its gold and

silver rather than the products of its land and labor.

The other advantages supposed, of obliging foreigners to pay dearer for domestic commodities and to sell their own cheaper, are applied to a situation which includes a favorable balance of trade. It is understood in this sense—the prices of domestic commodities (such at least as are peculiar to the country) remain attached to the denominations of the coins. When a favorable balance of trade realizes in the market the mint difference between coin and bullion, foreigners who must pay in the latter are obliged to give more of it for such commodities than they otherwise would do. Again, the bullion, which is now obtained at a cheaper rate in the home market, will procure the same quantity of goods in the foreign market as before, which is said to render foreign commodities cheaper. In this reasoning much fallacy is to be suspected. If it be true that foreigners pay more for domestic commodities, it must be equally true that they get more for their own when they bring them themselves to the market. If peculiar or other domestic commodities adhere to the denominations of the coins, no reason occurs why foreign commodities of a like character should not do the same thing; and in this case the foreigner, though he receive only the same value in coin for his merchandise as formerly, can convert it into a greater quantity of bullion. Whence the nation is liable to lose more of its gold and silver than if their intrinsic value in relation to the coins were preserved. And whether the gain or the loss will, on the whole, preponderate, would appear to depend on the comparative proportion of active commerce of the one country with the other.

It is evident, also, that the nation must pay as much gold and silver as before for the commodities which it procures *abroad;* and whether it obtains this gold and silver cheaper or not turns upon the solution of the question just intimated, respecting the relative proportion of active commerce between the two countries.

Besides these considerations, it is admitted in the reasoning that the advantages supposed, which depend on a favorable balance of trade, have a tendency to affect that balance disadvantageously. Foreigners, it is allowed, will in this case seek some other vent for their commodities and some other market where they can supply their wants at an easier rate. A tendency of this kind, if real, would be a sufficient objection to the regulation. Nothing which contributes to change a beneficial current of trade can well compensate by particular advantages for so injurious an effect. It is far more easy to transfer trade from a less to a more favorable channel than, when once transferred, to bring it back to its old one. Every source of artificial interruption to an advantageous current is, therefore, cautiously to be avoided.

It merits attention that the able minister who lately and so long presided over the finances of France does not attribute to the duty on coinage in that country any particular advantages in relation to exchange and trade. Though he rather appears an advocate for it, it is on the sole ground of the revenue it affords, which he represents as in the nature of a very moderate duty on the general mass of exportation.

And it is not improbable that to the singular felicity of situation of that kingdom is to be attributed its not having been sensible of the evils which seem incident to the regulation. There is, perhaps, no part of Europe which has so little need of other countries as France. Comprehending a variety of soils and climates, an immense population, its agriculture in a state of mature improvement, it possesses within its own bosom most, if not all, the productions of the earth which any of its most favored neighbors can boast. The variety, abundance, and excellence of its wines constitute a peculiar advantage in its favor. Arts and manufactures are there also in a very advanced state, some of them of considerable importance and in higher perfection than elsewhere. Its contiguity to Spain, the intimate nature of its connection with that country—a country with few fabrics of its own, consequently numerous wants, and the principal receptacle of the treasures of the New World—these circumstances concur in securing to France so uniform and so considerable a balance of trade as in a great measure to counteract the natural tendency of any errors

which may exist in the system of her mint, and to render inferences from the operation of that system there, in reference to this country, more liable to mislead than to instruct. Nor ought it to pass unnoticed that with all these advantages the government of France has found it necessary on some occasions to employ very violent methods to compel the bringing of bullion to the mint—a circumstance which affords a strong presumption of the inexpediency of the regulation and of the impracticability of executing it in the United States.

This point has been the longer dwelt upon, not only because there is a diversity of opinion among speculative men concerning it, and a diversity in the practice of the most considerable commercial nations, but because the acts of our own government under the Confederation have not only admitted the expediency of defraying the expense of coinage out of the metals themselves, but upon this idea have both made a deduction from the weight of the coins and established a difference between their regulated value and the mint price of bullion, greater than would result from that deduction. This double operation in favor of a principle so questionable in itself has made a more particular investigation of it a duty.

The intention, however, of the preceding remarks is rather to show that the expectation of commercial advantages ought not to decide in favor of a duty on coinage, and that, if it should be adopted, it ought not to be in the form of a deduction from the intrinsic value of the coins, than absolutely to exclude the idea of any difference whatever between the value of the metals in coin and in bullion. It is not clearly discerned that a small difference between the mint price of bullion and the regulated value of the coins would be pernicious or that it might not even be advisable, in the first instance, by way of experiment merely as a preventive to the melting down and exportation of the coins. This will now be somewhat more particularly considered.

The arguments for a coinage entirely free are that it preserves the intrinsic value of the metals, that it makes the expense of fabrication a general instead of partial tax, and that it tends to promote the abundance of gold and silver, which, it is alleged, will flow to that place where they find the best price, and from that place where they are in any degree undervalued.

The first consideration has not much weight as an objection to a plan which, without diminishing the quantity of metals in the coins, merely allows a less price for them in bullion at the national factory or mint. No rule of intrinsic value is violated by considering the raw material as worth less than the fabric in proportion to the expense of fabrication. And by divesting foreign coins of the privilege of circulating as money they become the raw material.

The second consideration has perhaps greater weight. But it may not amount to an objection, if it be the best method of preventing disorders in the coins, which it is, in a particular manner, the interest of those on whom the tax would fall to prevent. The practice of taking gold by weight, which has of late years obtained in Great Britain, has been found in some degree a remedy; but this is inconvenient, and may on that account fall into disuse. Another circumstance has had a remedial operation. This is the delay of the mint. It appears to be the practice there not to make payment for the bullion which is brought to be exchanged for coin till it either has in fact, or is pretended to have, undergone the process of recoining.

The necessity of fulfilling prior engagements is a cause or pretext for postponing the delivery of the coin in lieu of the bullion. And this delay creates a difference in the market price of the two things. Accordingly, for some years past, an ounce of standard gold, which is worth in coin £3 17*s.* 10½*d.* sterling, has been in the market of London, in bullion, only £3 17*s.* 6*d.*, which is within a small fraction of ½ per cent. less. Whether this be management in the mint to accommodate the bank in the purchase of bullion or to effect indirectly something equivalent to a formal difference of price, or whether it be the natural course of the business is open to conjecture.

It at the same time indicates that, if the mint were to make prompt payment at about ½ per cent. less than

it does at present, the state of bullion in respect to coin would be precisely the same as it now is. And it would be then certain that the government would save expense in the coinage of gold, since it is not probable that the time actually lost in the course of the year in converting bullion into coin can be an equivalent to ½ per cent. on the advance, and there will generally be at the command of the treasury a considerable sum of money waiting for some periodical disbursement, which without hazard might be applied to that advance.

In what sense a free coinage can be said to promote the abundance of gold and silver may be inferred from the instances which have been given of the tendency of a contrary system to promote their exportation. It is, however, not probable that a very small difference of value between coin and bullion can have any effect which ought to enter into calculation. There can be no inducement of positive profit to export the bullion as long as the difference of price is exceeded by the expense of transportation. And the prospect of smaller loss upon the metals than upon commodities when the difference is very minute will be frequently overbalanced by the possibility of doing better with the latter from a rise of markets. It is, at any rate, certain that it can be of no consequence, in this view, whether the superiority of coin to bullion in the market be produced as in England by the delay of the mint or by a formal discrimination in the regulated values.

Under an impression that a *small* difference between the value of the coin and the mint price of bullion is the least exceptionable expedient for restraining the melting down or exportation of the former, and not perceiving that, if it be a very moderate one, it can be hurtful in other respects, the Secretary is inclined to an experiment of ½ per cent. on each of the metals. The fact which has been mentioned with regard to the price of gold bullion in the English market seems to demonstrate that such a difference may safely be made. In this case there must be immediate payment for the gold and silver offered to the mint. How far ½ per cent. will go towards defraying the expense of the coinage cannot be determined beforehand with accuracy. It is presumed that on an economical plan it will suffice in relation to gold. But it is not expected that the same rate on silver will be sufficient to defray the expense attending that metal. Some additional provision may therefore be found necessary if this limit be adopted.

It does not seem to be advisable to make any greater difference in regard to silver than to gold, because it is desirable that the proportion between the two metals in the market should correspond with that in the coins, which would not be the case if the mint price of one was comparatively lower than that of the other, and because, also, silver being proposed to be rated in respect to gold somewhat below its general commercial value, if there should be a disparity to its disadvantage in the mint prices of the two metals, it would obstruct too much the bringing of it to be coined, and would add an inducement to export it. Nor does it appear to the Secretary safe to make a greater difference between the value of coin and bullion than has been mentioned. It will be better to have to increase it hereafter, if this shall be found expedient, than to have to recede from too considerable a difference in consequence of evils which shall have been experienced.

It is sometimes mentioned as an expedient which, consistently with a free coinage, may serve to prevent the evils desired to be avoided, to incorporate in the coins a greater proportion of alloy than is usual, regulating their value, nevertheless, according to the quantity of pure metal they contain. This, it is supposed, by adding to the difficulty of refining them, would cause bullion to be preferred, both for manufacture and exportation.

But strong objections lie against this scheme—an augmentation of expense, an actual depreciation of the coin, a danger of still greater depreciation in the public opinion, the facilitating of counterfeits—while it is questionable whether it would have the effect expected from it.

The alloy being esteemed of no value, an increase of it is evidently an increase of expense. This, in relation to the gold

coins particularly, is a matter of moment. It has been noted that the alloy in them consists partly of silver. If, to avoid expense, the addition should be of copper only, this would spoil the appearance of the coin and give it a base countenance. Its beauty would indeed be injured, though in a less degree, even if the usual proportions of silver and copper should be maintained in the increased quantity of alloy.

And, however inconsiderable an additional expenditure of copper in the coinage of a year may be deemed, in a series of years it would become of consequence. In regulations which contemplate the lapse and operation of ages a very small item of expense acquires importance.

The actual depreciation of the coin by an increase of alloy results from the very circumstance which is the motive to it—the greater difficulty of refining. In England it is customary for those concerned in manufactures of gold to make a deduction in the price of fourpence sterling per ounce of fine gold for every carat which the mass containing it is below the legal standard. Taking this as a rule, an inferiority of a single carat, or one twenty-fourth part, in the gold coins of the United States, compared with the English standard, would cause the *same quantity* of pure gold in them to be worth nearly $^4/_{10}$ per cent. less than in the coins of Great Britain. This circumstance would be likely in process of time to be felt in the market of the United States.

A still greater depreciation in the public opinion would be apprehended from the *apparent* debasement of the coin. The effects of imagination and prejudice cannot safely be disregarded in anything that relates to money. If the beauty of the coin be impaired, it may be found difficult to satisfy the generality of the community that what appears worse is not really less valuable, and it is not altogether certain that an impression of its being so may not occasion an unnatural augmentation of prices.

Greater danger of imposition by counterfeits is also to be apprehended from the injury which will be done to the appearance of the coin. It is a just observation that "the perfection of the coins is a great safeguard against counterfeits." And it is evident that the color as well as the excellence of the workmanship is an ingredient in that perfection. The intermixture of too much alloy, particularly of copper, in the gold coins at least, must materially lessen the facility of distinguishing by the eye the purer from the baser kind, the genuine from the counterfeit.

The inefficacy of the arrangement to the purpose intended to be answered by it is rendered probable by different considerations. If the standard of plate in the United States should be regulated according to that of the national coins, it is to be expected that the goldsmith would prefer these to the foreign coins, because he would find them prepared to his hand in the state which he desires, whereas he would have to *expend* an additional quantity of alloy to bring the foreign coins to that state. If the standard of plate by law or usage should be superior to that of the national coins, there would be a possibility of the foreign coins bearing a higher price in the market; and this would not only obstruct their being brought to the mint, but might occasion the exportation of the national coin in preference. It is not understood that the practice of making an abatement of price for the inferiority of standard is applicable to the English mint; and, if it be not, this would also contribute to frustrating the expected effect from the increase of alloy. For, in this case, a given quantity of pure metal in our standard would be worth as much there as in bullion of the English or any other standard.

Considering, therefore, the uncertainty of the success of the expedient and the inconveniences which seem incident to it, it would appear preferable to submit to those of a free coinage. It is observable that additional expense, which is one of the principal of these, is also applicable to the proposed remedy.

It is now proper to resume and finish the answer to the first question, in order to do which the three succeeding ones have necessarily been anticipated. The conclusion to be drawn from the observations which have been made on the subject is this: That the unit in the coins of the United States ought to correspond with 24 grains and ¾ of a grain of pure gold, and with 371 grains and ¼ of a grain of

pure silver, each answering to a dollar in the money of account. The former is exactly agreeable to the present value of gold, and the latter is within a small fraction of the mean of the two last emissions of dollars—the only ones which are now found in common circulation, and of which the newest is in the greatest abundance; the alloy in each case to be one-twelfth of the total weight, which will make the unit 27 grains of standard gold and 405 grains of standard silver.

Each of these, it has been remarked, will answer to a dollar in the money of account. It is conceived that nothing better can be done in relation to this than to pursue the track marked out by the resolution of the 8th of August, 1786. This has been approved abroad as well as at home, and it is certain that nothing can be more simple and convenient than the decimal subdivisions. There is every reason to expect that the method will speedily grow into general use when it shall be seconded by corresponding coins. On this plan the unit in the money of account will continue to be, as established by that resolution, a dollar, and its multiples, dimes, cents, and mills, or tenths, hundredths, and thousandths.

With regard to the number of different pieces which shall compose the coins of the United States, two things are to be consulted—convenience of circulation and cheapness of the coinage. The first ought not to be sacrificed to the last; but, as far as they can be reconciled to each other, it is desirable to do it. Numerous and small (if not too minute) subdivisions assist circulation; but the multiplication of the smaller kinds increases expense, the same process being necessary to a small as to a large piece.

As it is easy to add, it will be most advisable to begin with a small number till experience shall decide whether any other kinds are necessary. The following, it is conceived, will be sufficient in the commencement:—

One gold piece, equal in weight and value to ten units or dollars.

One gold piece, equal to a tenth part of the former, and which shall be a unit or dollar.

One silver piece, which shall also be a unit or dollar.

One silver piece, which shall be in weight and value a tenth part of the silver unit or dollar.

One copper piece, which shall be of the value of a hundredth part of a dollar.

One other copper piece, which shall be half the value of the former.

It is not proposed that the lighter piece of the two gold coins should be numerous, as, in large payments, the larger the pieces the shorter the process of counting, the less risk of mistake, and, consequently, the greater the safety and the convenience; and in small payments it is not perceived that any inconvenience can accrue from an entire dependence on the silver and copper coins. The chief inducement to the establishment of the small gold piece is to have a sensible object in that metal, as well as in silver, to express the unit. Fifty thousand at a time in circulation may suffice for this purpose.

The tenth part of a dollar is but a small piece, and, with the aid of the copper coins, will probably suffice for all the more minute uses of circulation. It is less than the least of the silver coins now in general currency in England.

The larger copper piece will nearly answer to the halfpenny sterling, and the smaller, of course, to the farthing. Pieces of very small value are a great accommodation and the means of a beneficial economy to the poor, by enabling them to purchase in small portions and at a more reasonable rate the necessaries of which they stand in need. If there are only cents, the lowest price for any portion of a vendible commodity, however inconsiderable in quantity, will be a cent; if there are half cents, it will be a half-cent; and in a great number of cases exactly the same things will be sold for a half-cent, which, if there were none, would cost a cent. But a half-cent is low enough for the *minimum* of price. Excessive minuteness would defeat its object. To enable the poorer classes to procure necessaries cheap is to enable them with more comfort to themselves to labor for less, the advantages of which need no comment.

The denominations of the silver coins contained in the resolution of the 8th of August, 1786, are conceived to be significant and proper. The dollar is recom-

mended by its correspondency with the present coin of that name for which it is designed to be a substitute, which will facilitate its ready adoption as such in the minds of the citizens. The dime, or tenth, the cent, or hundredth, the mill, or thousandth, are proper because they express the proportions which they are intended to designate. It is only to be regretted that the meaning of these terms will not be familiar to those who are not acquainted with the language from which they are borrowed. It were to be wished that the length and, in some degree, the clumsiness of some of the corresponding terms in English did not discourage from preferring them. It is useful to have names which signify the things to which they belong, and, in respect to objects of general use, in a manner intelligible to all. Perhaps it might be an improvement to let the dollar have the appellation either of dollar or unit (which latter will be the more significant), and to substitute "tenth" for dime. In time the unit may succeed to the dollar. The word cent being in use in various transactions and instruments will without much difficulty be understood as the hundredth, and the half-cent, of course, as the two-hundredth part.

The eagle is not a very expressive or apt appellation for the larger gold piece, but nothing better occurs. The smaller of the two gold coins may be called the dollar, or unit, in common with the silver piece with which it coincides.

The volume or size of each piece is a matter of more consequence than its denomination. It is evident that, the more superficies or surface, the more the piece will be liable to be injured by friction, or, in other words, the faster it will wear. For this reason it is desirable to render the thickness as great, in proportion to the breadth, as may consist with neatness and good appearance. Hence the form of the double guinea, or double louis d'or, is preferable to that of the half johannes, for the large gold piece. The small one cannot well be of any other size than the Portuguese piece of eight, of the same metal.

As it is of consequence to fortify the idea of the identity of the dollar, it may be best to let the form and size of the new one, as far as the quantity of matter (the alloy being less) permits, agree with the form and size of the present. The diameter may be the same.

The tenths may be in a mean between the Spanish 1-8 and 1-16 of a dollar.

The copper coins may be formed merely with a view to good appearance, as any difference in the wearing that can result from difference of form can be of little consequence in reference to that metal.

It is conceived that the weight of the cent may be eleven pennyweights, which will about correspond with the value of the copper and the expense of coinage. This will be to conform to the rule of intrinsic value, as far as regard to the convenient size of the coins will permit; and the deduction of the expense of coinage in this case will be the more proper, as the copper coins which have been current hitherto have passed till lately for much more than their intrinsic value. Taking the weight, as has been suggested, the size of the cent may be nearly that of the piece herewith transmitted, which weighs 10 dwt. 11 grs. 10 m. Two-thirds of the diameter of the cent will suffice for the diameter of the half-cent.

It may, perhaps, be thought expedient, according to general practice, to make the copper coinage an object of profit; but, where this is done to any considerable extent, it is hardly possible to have effectual security against counterfeits. This consideration, concurring with the soundness of the principle of preserving the intrinsic value of the money of a country, seems to outweigh the consideration of profit.

The foregoing suggestions respecting the sizes of the several coins are made on the supposition that the legislature may think fit to regulate this matter. Perhaps, however, it may be judged not unadvisable to leave it to executive discretion.

With regard to the proposed size of the cent it is to be confessed that it is rather greater than might be wished, if it could, with propriety and safety, be made less; and, should the value of copper continue to decline as it has done for some time past, it is very questionable whether it will long remain alone a fit metal for money. This has led to a consideration of the expediency of uniting a small proportion of silver with copper, in order to be able to

lessen the bulk of the inferior coins. For this there are precedents in several parts of Europe. In France the composition which is called billon has consisted of one part silver and four parts copper, according to which proportion a cent might contain seventeen grains, defraying out of the material the expense of coinage. The convenience of size is a recommendation of such a species of coin, but the Secretary is deterred from proposing it by the apprehension of counterfeits. The effect of so small a quantity of silver in comparatively so large a quantity of copper could easily be imitated by a mixture of other metals of little value, and the temptation to doing it would not be inconsiderable.

The devices of the coins are far from being matters of indifference, as they may be made the vehicles of useful impressions. They ought, therefore, to be emblematical, but without losing sight of simplicity. The fewer sharp points and angles there are, the less will be the loss by wearing. The Secretary thinks it best on this head to confine himself to these concise and general remarks.

The last point to be discussed respects the currency of foreign coins.

The abolition of this in proper season is a necessary part of the system contemplated for the national coinage. But this it will be expedient to defer till some considerable progress has been made in preparing substitutes for them. A gradation may therefore be found most convenient.

The foreign coins may be suffered to circulate precisely upon their present footing for one year after the mint shall have commenced its operations. The privilege may then be continued for another year to the gold coins of Portugal, England, and France, and to the silver coins of Spain. And these may still be permitted to be current for one year more at the rates allowed to be given for them at the mint, after the expiration of which the circulation of all foreign coins to cease.

The moneys which will be paid into the treasury during the first year, being recoined before they are issued anew, will afford a partial substitute before any interruption is given to the pre-existing supplies of circulation. The revenues of the succeeding year and the coins which will be brought to the mint in consequence of the discontinuance of their currency will materially extend the substitute in the course of that year, and its extension will be so far increased during the third year by the facility of procuring the remaining species to be recoined, which will arise from the diminution of their current values, as probably to enable the dispensing wholly with the circulation of foreign coins after that period. The progress which the currency of bank-bills will be likely to have made during the same time will also afford a substitute of another kind.

This arrangement, besides avoiding a sudden stagnation of circulation, will cause a considerable proportion of whatever loss may be incident to the establishment in the first instance to fall as it ought to do upon the government, and will probably tend to distribute the remainder of it more equally among the community.

It may, nevertheless, be advisable in addition to the precautions here suggested to repose a discretionary authority in the President of the United States to continue the currency of the Spanish dollar, at a value corresponding with the quantity of fine silver contained in it, beyond the period above mentioned for the cessation of the circulation of the foreign coins. It is possible that an exception in favor of this particular species of coin may be found expedient; and it may tend to obviate inconveniences, if there be a power to make the exception, in a capacity to be exerted when the period shall arrive.

The Secretary for the Department of State, in his report to the House of Representatives on the subject of establishing a uniformity in the weights, measures, and coins of the United States, has proposed that the weight of the dollar should correspond with the unit of weight. This was done on the supposition that it would require but a very small addition to the quantity of metal which the dollar, independently of the object he had in view, ought to contain, in which he was guided by the resolution of the 8th of August, 1786, fixing the dollar at 375 grains and 64 hundredths of a grain.

Taking this as the proper standard of the dollar, a small alteration, for the sake of incorporating so systematic an

idea, would appear desirable. But, if the principles which have been reasoned from in this report are just, the execution of that idea becomes more difficult. It would certainly not be advisable to make on that account so considerable a change in the money unit as would be produced by the addition of five grains of silver to the proper weight of the dollar, without a proportional augmentation of its relative value; and to make such an augmentation would be to abandon the advantage of preserving the identity of the dollar, or, to speak more accurately, of having the proposed one received and considered as a mere substitute for the present.

The end may, however, be obtained without either of those inconveniences by increasing the proportion of alloy in the silver coins. But this would destroy the uniformity in that respect between the gold and silver coins. It remains, therefore, to elect which of the two systematic ideas shall be pursued or relinquished; and it may be remarked that it will be more easy to convert the present silver coins into the proposed ones if these last have the same or nearly the same proportion of alloy than if they have less.

Hamilton, ANDREW, governor; born in Scotland; sent to East Jersey by its proprietaries in 1686; became acting governor in 1687; returned to England in 1689; appointed governor of East Jersey in 1692; deposed in 1697, and reappointed in 1699. William Penn made him deputy governor of Pennsylvania in 1701. Hamilton obtained the first patent from the crown for a postal service in 1694. He died in Burlington, N. J., April 20, 1703.

Hamilton, ANDREW, lawyer; born in Scotland, about 1676; acquired much distinction by his defence of the liberty of the press on the trial of Zenger in New York. He filled many public stations in Pennsylvania, including that of speaker of the Assembly, which he resigned in 1739 in consequence of physical infirmity. He died in Philadelphia Aug. 4, 1741. See ZENGER, JOHN PETER.

Hamilton, ANDREW JACKSON, jurist; born in Madison county, Ala., Jan. 28, 1815; removed to Texas in 1846; elected to Congress in 1859; opposed the secession of Texas. On Nov. 14, 1862, he was appointed brigadier-general of United States volunteers and military governor of Texas; in 1865 he became provisional governor; and in 1866 justice in the Supreme Court of the State. He died in Austin, Tex., April 10, 1875.

Hamilton, CHARLES SMITH, military officer, a grandson of Alexander Hamilton; born in New York, Nov. 16, 1822; graduated at West Point in 1843; served throughout the war with Mexico; resigned from the army in 1853; appointed colonel of the 3d Wisconsin Regiment May 11, 1861; participated in the siege of Yorktown, and subsequently in the battles of Corinth and Iuka; was transferred to the Army of the Tennessee; and resigned in April, 1863. He died in Milwaukee, Wis., April 17, 1891.

Hamilton, FRANK HASTINGS, surgeon; born in Wilmington, Vt., Sept. 10, 1813; graduated at Union College in 1830, and in medicine at the University of Pennsylvania in 1835. In 1839 he became Professor of Surgery in the Western College of Physicians and Surgeons, and in the following year in the medical college at Geneva. In 1846 he was appointed Professor of Surgery in the medical college in Buffalo, of which he later became dean. When the Long Island Hospital College was established in 1859, he became Professor of the Principles and Practice of Surgery there and also surgeon-in-chief. In 1861 he was made Professor of Military Surgery, and at the outbreak of the Civil War went to the front with the 31st New York Volunteers. During the first battle of Bull Run he was director of the general field hospital in Centreville. In 1862 he was appointed a medical director in the army, and in 1863 a medical inspector, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. He, however, soon resigned, and went to the Bellevue Hospital Medical College as military surgeon. When President Garfield was shot Dr. Hamilton was one of the first surgeons called in attendance, and continued on that duty until the President's death. Dr. Hamilton performed many noteworthy operations, and invented or improved a number of instruments used in surgical practice. His publications include: *Treatise on Strabismus; Treatise on Fractures and Dislocations; Practical Treatise on Military Surgery;* and

The Principles and Practice of Surgery. He also edited Amussat's *Use of Water in Surgery,* and *The Surgical Memoirs of the War of the Rebellion.* He died in New York City, Aug. 11, 1886.

Hamilton, HENRY, military officer; born in England; was lieutenant-governor of Detroit during the Revolutionary War. He was one of the most active promoters of Indian raids upon the frontier settlements of the Americans in the Northwest. To Detroit he summoned several Indian nations to a council late in 1777; and from that point he sent abroad along the frontiers bands of savages to murder and plunder the American settlers. Their cruelties he applauded as evidence of their attachment to the royal cause. He gave standing rewards for scalps, but offered none for prisoners. His war-parties, composed of white men and Indians, spared neither men, women, nor children. He planned a confederation of the tribes to desolate Virginia. In 1778 he wrote to LORD GEORGE GERMAIN (*q. v.*), whose favorite he was, "Next year there will be the greatest number of savages on the frontier that has ever been known, as the Six Nations have sent belts around to encourage those allies who have made a general alliance." But early in that year he was made a prisoner of war at Vincennes, and was sent to Virginia. He had formed a conspiracy for the Southern and Northern Indians to desolate the whole frontier from New York to Georgia. He died in Antigua, Sept. 29, 1796.

Hamilton, PAUL, statesman; born in St. Paul's parish, S. C., Oct. 16, 1762; elected comptroller of South Carolina in 1799; governor in 1804. President Madison appointed him Secretary of the Navy in 1809. He died in Beaufort, S. C., June 30, 1816.

Hamilton, SCHUYLER, military officer; born in New York City, July 25, 1822; graduated at West Point in 1841; served in the war with Mexico; and was acting aide to General Scott. He was severely wounded in a hand-to-hand engagement with Mexicans. He was brevetted captain, and remained on Scott's staff until 1854. He left the army in 1855, but on the fall of Sumter (1861) he joined the 7th New York Regiment as a private. He became aide to General Butler at Annapolis, and soon entered the military family of General Scott at Washington. He was made brigadier-general in November, 1861, and accompanied General Halleck to Missouri, where he commanded the district of St. Louis. In February, 1862, he commanded a division of Pope's army; and by the planning and construction of a canal, greatly assisted in the capture of New Madrid and ISLAND NUMBER TEN (*q. v.*). In 1862 he was made major-general of volunteers; resigned in February, 1863; and was hydrographic engineer for the New York department of docks in 1871–75. He died in New York, March 18, 1903.

Hamilton, THOMAS, author; born in England in 1789; joined the British army; was commissioned captain of the 29th Regiment; served in the War of 1812, and later engaged in literary work. His publications include *Men and Manners in America* (which met with little favor in the United States owing to its depreciation of American character), etc. He died in Pisa, Italy, Dec. 7, 1842.

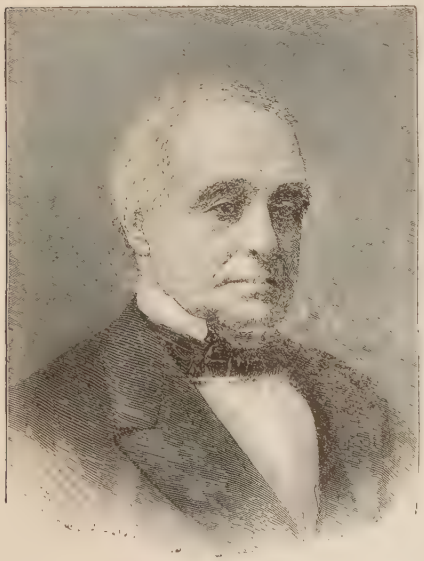
Hamlin, AUGUSTUS CHOATE, surgeon; born in Columbia, Me., Aug. 28, 1829; graduated at the Harvard Medical School in 1855. At the beginning of the Civil War he recruited a company at his own expense; followed his profession in the war; and became medical inspector of the army with the rank of lieutenant-colonel in 1863. His publications include *Martyria, or Andersonville Prison; The Battle of Chancellorsville; History of Mt. Mica, Me.,* etc.

Hamlin, CHARLES, lawyer; born in Hampden, Me., Sept. 13, 1837; son of Hannibal Hamlin; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1857; admitted to the bar in the following year; enlisted in the National army in 1862; brevetted brigadier-general of volunteers in March, 1865. He published the *Insolvent Laws of Maine,* etc.

Hamlin, CYRUS, educator; born in Waterford, Me., Jan. 5, 1811; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1834, and at Bangor Theological Seminary in 1837; went as a missionary to Turkey, and there served under the American board of commissioners for foreign missions in 1837–60. He established Robert College

at Constantinople, and was its president in 1860–77, when he returned to the United States, and became Professor of Theology at Bangor Theological Seminary. In 1880–85 he was president of Middlebury College. He later became an agent of the American board of foreign missions. His works include *Among the Turks*, and *My Life and Times*. He died in Portland, Me., Aug. 8, 1900.

Hamlin, HANNIBAL, Vice-President of the United States; born in Paris, Me., Aug. 27, 1809; taught school, and entered official life early. For many years he was a Democrat, as member of the Maine legislature; Congressman from 1843 to 1847; and United States Senator from 1849 to 1857. Having joined the Republican party, he was governor of Maine for



HANNIBAL HAMLIN.

a short time in 1857, and was again Senator from 1857 to 1861. In 1860 he was elected Vice-President on the ticket with Abraham Lincoln, and served from 1861 to 1865. President Johnson appointed him collector of the port of Boston. From 1869 to 1881 he was again in the United States Senate, and his long political career closed with his occupation of the ministry to Spain from 1881 to 1883. He died in Bangor, Me., July 4, 1891.

Hammond, JABEZ D., lawyer; born in New Bedford, Mass., Aug. 2, 1778; was admitted to the bar in 1805; and practised, with several interruptions, till 1830. His publications include *The Political History of New York to December of 1840; Life and Opinions of Julius Melbourn; Life of Silas Wright*, etc. He died in Cherry Valley, N. Y., Aug. 18, 1855.

Hammond, JAMES HENRY, statesman; born in Newberry, S. C., Nov. 15, 1807; graduated at South Carolina College in 1825; elected to Congress in 1835; governor of the State in 1842, and United States Senator in 1857. He was a supporter of Calhoun, and an ardent advocate of nullification. When South Carolina seceded he resigned his seat in the United States Senate, and retired to his plantation in Beech Island, where he died, Nov. 13, 1864.

Hammond, MARCUS CLAUDIUS MARCELLUS, military officer; born in Newberry district, S. C., Dec. 12, 1814; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1836; promoted first lieutenant in November, 1839; served during a part of the war with Mexico as additional paymaster; resigned in April, 1847, owing to failing health. He published *A Critical History of the Mexican War*. He died in Beech Island, S. C., Jan. 23, 1876.

Hammond, SAMUEL, military officer; born in Richmond county, Va., Sept. 21, 1757; participated in Dunmore's expedition; served throughout the Revolutionary War; settled in Savannah; was elected to Congress in 1803; appointed commandant of upper Louisiana in 1805, and held the office until 1824, when he resigned. He died in Augusta, Ga., Sept. 11, 1842.

Hammond, WILLIAM ALEXANDER, surgeon; born in Annapolis, Md., Aug. 28, 1828; graduated at the University of the City of New York in 1848; was in the medical service of the regular army in 1849–60, when he was appointed Professor of Anatomy and Physiology at the University of Maryland. When the Civil War opened he re-entered the army, and in April, 1862, was commissioned surgeon-general. In August, 1864, he was tried before a court-martial on a charge of official irregularities, and was dismissed

from the army. This ban rested on him till 1878, when Congress passed a special bill directing the President to review the proceedings of the court-martial. As a result of this examination, he was honorably restored to his former rank in the army, and then placed on the retired list. Later, he became Professor of the Nervous System and Diseases of the Mind in the New York and Baltimore medical colleges. His professional writings include *Military Hygiene; Physiological Essays; Sleep and Its Derangements; Lectures on Venereal Diseases; Insanity in Its Medico-Legal Relations; Physics and Physiology of Spiritualism; Neurological Contributions*, etc. He also published the novels *Robert Severne; Lal; Dr. Grattan; Mr. Oldmixon; A Strong-Minded Woman; On the Susquehanna; A Son of Perdition*, etc. He died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 5, 1900.

Hamond, Sir Andrew Snape, naval officer; born in Blackheath, England, Dec. 17, 1738; joined the British navy in 1753. When the Revolutionary War broke out he came to America with Howe, and served on the *Roebuck*, which was present at the capture of New York, and which later destroyed the frigate *Delaware* and other ships in the Delaware River. In November, 1777, Hammond participated in the successful assault on Mud Island; was acting captain of the squadron which reduced Charleston, S. C., in 1780. He returned to England in 1783, and in December of that year was created a baron. He died in Norfolk, England, Oct. 12, 1838.

Hampden, Action at. When the British had taken possession of Castine, Me., a land and naval force was sent up the Penobscot River to capture or destroy the corvette *John Adams*, which had fled up the river to the town of Hampden. The commander of the *John Adams*, Capt. C. Morris, was warned of his danger, and he notified Gen. John Blake, commander of the 10th division of Massachusetts militia. The British force consisted of two sloops-of-war, a tender, a large transport, and nine launches, commanded by Commodore Barrie, and 700 soldiers, led by Lieutenant-Colonel St. John. The expedition sailed on Sept. 1, 1814, and the next morning General Gosselin took possession of Belfast, on the western shore of Penobscot Bay, at the head of 600 troops. The expedition landed some troops at Frankfort, which marched up the western side of the river. The flotilla, with the remainder, sailed on, and arrived near Hampden at five o'clock in the evening, when the troops and about eighty mariners were landed and bivouacked. They found the militia assembling to resist them. Meanwhile Captain Morris had taken out of the *John Adams* nine short 18-pounders, and mounted them on a high bank, in charge of Lieutenant Wadsworth. With the remainder of his guns, he took position on the wharf with about 200 seamen and marines, prepared to defend his crippled ship to the last extremity. She had been much damaged by striking a rock when she entered Penobscot Bay, and had run up to Hampden to avoid capture. The British detachment landed at Frankfort, and moved forward cautiously, in a dense fog, to join the other invaders, with a vanguard of riflemen. Blake had sent a body of militia to confront the invaders. These were suddenly attacked, when they broke and fled in every direction, leaving Blake and his officers alone. This panic imperilled the force that was to defend the *John Adams*, when Morris, seeing no other means for the salvation of his troops but in flight, ordered his guns to be spiked and the vessel set on fire. This was done, and the men under Morris fled northward.

With Blake and his officers and a bare remnant of his command, Morris retreated to Bangor, and thence made his way overland to Portland. The British took possession of Hampden, and a part of their force, 500 strong, pushed on to Bangor with their vessels. They met a flag of truce with a message from the magistrates of Bangor asking terms of capitulation. Nothing was granted excepting respect for private property. They entered the town, when Commodore Barrie gave notice that persons and property should be protected if supplies were cheerfully furnished. This promise was speedily broken. The sailors were given license to plunder as much as they pleased. Many stores were robbed of everything valuable. The leader of the land troops tried to protect private property. The British remained in Bangor thirty-one hours, quartered on the inhabi-

tants, who were compelled to sign a parole as prisoners of war. General Blake was compelled to sign the same, and 190 citizens were thus bound. Having despoiled

OLD MEETING-HOUSE, HAMPDEN.

the inhabitants of property valued at over $20,000, and burned several vessels, the marauders departed, to engage in similar work at Hampden (Sept. 5). Barrie allowed the sailors to commit the most wanton acts of destruction. They desolated the village meeting-house, tore up the Bible and psalm-books in it, and demolished the pulpit and pews. As at Havre-de-Grace, they wantonly butchered cattle and hogs, and compelled the selectmen to sign a bond to guarantee the delivery of vessels then at Hampden at Castine. The speedy return of peace cancelled the bond. The total loss of property at Hampden by the hands of the marauders, exclusive of a very valuable cargo on board the schooner *Commodore Decatur*, was estimated at $44,000. When a committee at Hampden waited upon Barrie and asked for the common safeguards of humanity, he replied: "I have none for you; my business is to burn, sink, and destroy"—the cruel order issued by Admiral Cochrane.

Hampton, WADE, military officer; born in South Carolina in 1754; was distinguished as a partisan officer under Sumter and Marion in the Revolution; and was twice a member of Congress—from 1795 to 1797, and from 1803 to 1805. In October, 1808, he was commissioned a colonel in the United States army; in 1809 brigadier-general, and March 2, 1813, major-general. Imperious and overbearing in his nature and deportment, he was constantly quarrelling with his subordinates. He was superseded by Wilkinson in command at New Orleans when the war broke out in 1812, and was put in command of the Army of the North, with headquarters on the borders of Lake Champlain. In that post he gained no honors, and his career there was chiefly marked by disobedience to the orders of his superiors. In April, 1814, he resigned his commission, and left the army. He was an extensive land and slave owner in South Carolina and Louisiana. He died in Columbia, S. C., Feb. 4, 1835. See CHATEAUGAY, BATTLE OF; CHAMPLAIN, LAKE.

Hampton, WADE, military officer; born in Charleston, S. C., March 28, 1818; grandson of the preceding; graduated at the South Carolina College; served in both branches of the State legislature. In 1860 he was considered one of the richest planters in the South, and owned the largest number of slaves. When the Civil War opened he raised and partially equipped the Hampton Legion, of which he became commandant. He was

WADE HAMPTON.

wounded in the first battle of Bull Run, and at Gettysburg was wounded three times. On May 11, 1864, he was promoted to major-general, and in August of the same year became commander-in-chief of all the Confederate cavalry in northern Virginia. One of his most exciting raids

was that upon General Grant's commissariat, when he captured about 2,500 head of cattle. Shortly before General Lee's surrender he was promoted to lieutenant-general. After the war he became conspicuous as an advocate of the policy of conciliation between the North and South. In 1876 and 1878 he was elected governor of South Carolina, and in 1878 and 1884 United States Senator, and in 1893 was appointed United States commissioner of railroads. He died on April 11, 1902.

Hampton, a village near the end of the peninsula between the York and James rivers, Virginia. An armed sloop was driven ashore there by a gale in October, 1775. The villagers took out her guns and munitions of war, and then burned her, making her men prisoners. Dunmore at once blockaded the port. The people called to their aid some Virginia regulars and militia. Dunmore sent some tenders close into Hampton Roads to destroy the village. The military marched out to oppose them; and when they came within gunshot distance George Nicholas, who commanded the Virginians, fired his musket at one of the tenders. This was the first gun fired at the British in Virginia. It was followed by a volley. Boats sunk in the channel retarded the British ships, and, after a sharp skirmish the next day, Oct. 27, the blockaders were driven away. One of the tenders was taken, with its armament and seamen, and several of the British were slain. The Virginians did not lose a man. This was the first battle of the Revolution in Virginia.

In 1813 the British, exasperated by their repulse at Craney Island, proceeded to attack the village of Hampton. It was defended at the time by about 450 Virginia soldiers, commanded by Maj. Stapleton Crutchfield. They were chiefly militia infantry, with a few artillerymen and cavalry. They had a heavy battery to defend the water-front of the camp and village, composed of four 6, two 12, and one 18 pounder cannon, in charge of Sergt. William Burke. Early on the morning of June 25, about 2,500 British land-troops, under Gen. Sir Sidney Beckwith (including rough French prisoners, called *Chasseurs Britanniques*), landed under cover of the guns of the *Mohawk*, behind a wood, about 2 miles from Hamp-

THE BURNING OF HAMPTON.

ton. Most of the inhabitants fled; the few who could not were willing to trust to the honor and clemency of the British, if they should capture the place. As they moved upon the village, Crutchfield and his men—infantry, artillery, and cavalry—fought the invaders gallantly; but at length overwhelming numbers, failure of gunpowder, volleys of grape-shot, and flights of Congreve rockets, compelled the

ST. JOHN'S CHURCH.

Americans, who were partially outflanked, to break and flee in the direction of Yorktown. Thus ended a sharp battle, in which the British lost, in killed, wounded, and missing, about fifty men, and the Americans about thirty. Of eleven missing Americans, ten had fled to their homes. The victorious British now entered the village, and Cockburn, who had come on shore, and was in chief command, gave the place up to pillage and rapine. The atrocities committed upon the defenceless inhabitants, particularly the women, were deeply deplored and condemned by the British authorities and writers. Cockburn, who was the chief instigator of them, covered his name with dishonor by the act. The British officers who tried to palliate the offence by charging the crimes upon the Frenchmen, were denounced by the most respectable British writers. A commission, appointed to investigate the matter, said, in their report, "The sex hitherto guarded by the soldiers' honor escaped not the assaults of superior force."

On the night of Aug. 7, 1861, this village, then containing about 500 houses, was set on fire by order of the Confederate General Magruder, and all but the courthouse and seven or eight other buildings were consumed. National troops had occupied Hampton after the battle of BIG BETHEL (*q. v.*), but had just been withdrawn. Among other buildings destroyed at that time was the ancient St. John's Church, in the suburbs of the village. It was the third oldest house of worship in Virginia. The earliest inscription found in its graveyard was 1701. Before the Revolution the royal arms, handsomely carved, were upon the steeple. It is said that, soon after the Declaration of Independence, the steeple was shattered by lightning, and the insignia of royalty hurled to the ground. The church was in a state of good preservation, and was used as a place of worship, according to the ritual of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America, until 1861.

Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, an institution organized by GEN. SAMUEL C. ARMSTRONG (*q. v.*) for the education of colored youth, in Hampton, Va. It was opened in 1868, is nonsectarian and co-educational; and now, under an arrangement with the national government, gives instruction to Indian youth as well as colored. The development of the institute is due, in a large measure, to the students themselves. Nearly all the buildings have been erected by the students, who also worked out the timber, baked the bricks, and performed other technical work. At the end of 1900 the institute reported eighty professors and instructors, 1,017 students, 1,061 graduates, 11,000 volumes in the library, and $889,500 in productive funds. The president was the Rev. H. B. Frissell, D.D.

Hampton Roads, a noted channel connecting the estuary of the James River with Chesapeake Bay, south of Fort Monroe. It was the scene of the fight between the MONITOR AND MERRIMAC (*q. v.*) in 1862, and the rendezvous of the international war-vessels that took part in the Columbus celebration at New York in 1892.

Hampton Roads Conference. In January, 1865, Francis P. Blair twice visited Richmond, Va., to confer with Jefferson

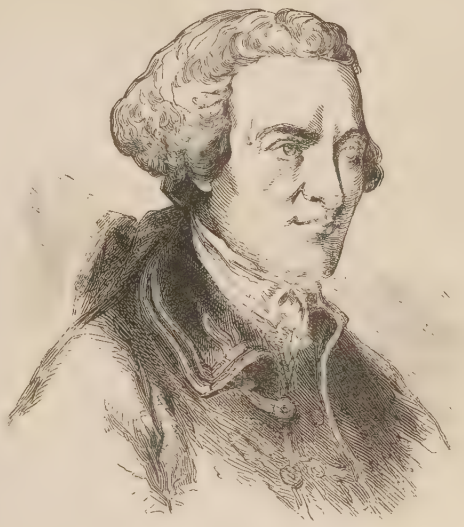
Davis. He believed that a suspension of hostilities, and an ultimate settlement by restoration of the Union, might be brought about, by the common desire, North and South, to enforce the Monroe doctrine against the French in Mexico. Out of Mr. Blair's visits grew a conference, held on a vessel in Hampton Roads, Feb. 3, 1865, between Mr. Lincoln and Mr. Seward on one side, and Messrs. A. H. Stephens, R. M. T. Hunter, and John A. Campbell on the other. It was informal, and no basis for negotiation was reached.

Hanaford, PHEBE ANNE, author; born in Nantucket, Mass., May 6, 1829; was ordained to the ministry of the Universalist Church in 1868, being the first woman to assume the clerical office in that Church. Her publications include *Abraham Lincoln; Field, Gunboat, Hospital, and Prison; Women of the Century; Life of George Peabody,* etc.

HANCOCK, JOHN

Hancock, JOHN, statesman; born in Quincy, Mass., Jan. 12, 1737; graduated at Harvard in 1754; and, becoming a merchant with his uncle, inherited that gentleman's large fortune and extensive business. He was one of the most active of the Massachusetts "SONS OF LIBERTY" (*q. v.*), and, with Samuel Adams, was outlawed by Gage in June, 1775. Hancock was a member of the Provincial Assembly in 1766, and was chosen president of the Provincial Congress in October, 1774. He was a delegate to the first Continental Congress, and continued in that body until 1778. As president of Congress, he first placed his bold signature to the Declaration of Independence. In February, 1778, he was appointed first major-general of the Massachusetts militia, and took part in Sullivan's campaign in Rhode Island in August following. He was a member of the Massachusetts State convention in 1780, and governor of the State from 1780 to 1785, and from 1787 till his death in Quincy, Oct. 8, 1793. He was president of the State convention that adopted the national Constitution. Hancock's residence was in a fine stone mansion on Beacon street, fronting the Common. It was built by his uncle, Thomas Hancock.

In the autumn of 1789 President Washington made a tour through portions of the New England States. He arrived at Boston on Saturday, Oct. 24. Hancock, who was then governor, had invited the President to lodge at his house in Boston, which the latter declined. After Washington's arrival, Hancock sent him an invitation to come and dine with him and his family informally that day at the close of the public reception ceremonies. It was accepted by Washington, with a full persuasion that the governor would call upon him before the dinner-hour. But Hancock had conceived the notion that the governor of a State, within his own domain, was officially superior to the President of the United States when he came into it. He had laid his plans for asserting his superiority by having Washington visit him *first*, and to this end sent him the invitation to lodge and dine with



JOHN HANCOCK.

him. At near the time for dinner, as the President did not appear, the governor evidently felt some misgivings, for he sent his secretary to the President with an excuse that he was too ill to call upon his excellency in person. The latter divined the nature of the "indisposition," and dined at his own lodgings at the Widow Ingersoll's with a single guest. That evening the governor, feeling uneasy, sent his lieutenant and two of his council to express his regret that his illness had not allowed him to call upon the President. "I informed them expressly," says Washington in his diary, "that I should not see the governor except at my lodgings." That message led Hancock to visit the President next day, and repeat in person the insufficient excuse for his own folly.

HANCOCK'S HOUSE, BOSTON.

Arraignment of Great Britain.—As before stated, Hancock and Samuel Adams were both elected members of the Provincial Congress at Concord early in 1774. On March 5 of that year Hancock delivered the following oration in Boston, which was the principal cause of his being outlawed, together with Samuel Adams, by General Gage, early in the following year. The British expedition to Concord in April, 1775, which led to the battle of Lexington, was undertaken to secure the arrest of both Hancock and Samuel Adams:

Men, Brethren, Fathers, and Fellow-Countrymen,—The attentive gravity, the venerable appearance of this crowded audience; the dignity which I behold in the countenances of so many in this great assembly; the solemnity of the occasion upon which we have met together, joined to a consideration of the part I am to take in the important business of this day, fill me with an awe hitherto unknown; and heighten the sense which I have ever had of my unworthiness to fill this sacred desk; but allured by the call of some of my respected fellow-citizens, with whose request it is always my greatest pleasure to comply, I almost forgot my want of ability to perform what they required. In this situation I find my only support in assuring myself that a generous people will not severely censure what they know was well intended, though its want of merit should prevent their being able to applaud it. And I pray that my sincere attachment to the interest of my country, and hearty detestation of every design formed against her liberties, may be submitted as some apology for my appearance in this place.

I have always, from my earliest youth, rejoiced in the felicity of my fellow-men; and have ever considered it as the indispensable duty of every member of society to promote, as far as in him lies, the prosperity of every individual, but more especially of the community to which he belongs, and also as a faithful subject of the state, to use his utmost endeavors to detect, and, having detected, strenuously to oppose every traitorous plot which its enemies may devise for its destruction. Security to the persons and properties of the governed is so obviously the design and end of civil government, that to attempt a logical proof of it would be like burning tapers at noonday, to assist the sun in enlightening the world; and it cannot be either virtuous or honorable to attempt to support a government of which this is not the great and principal basis; and it is to the last degree vicious and infamous to attempt to support a government which manifestly tends to render

the persons and properties of the governed insecure. Some boast of being friends to government; I am a friend to righteous government founded upon the principles of reason and justice; but I glory in publicly avowing my eternal enmity to tyranny. Is the present system, which the British administration have adopted for the government of the colonies, a righteous government, or is it tyranny? Here suffer me to ask (and would to Heaven there could be no answer) what tenderness, what regard, respect, or consideration has Great Britain shown, in their late transactions, for the security of the persons or properties of the inhabitants of the colonies; or rather, what have they omitted to destroy that security? They have declared that they have ever had, and of right ought to have, full power to make laws of sufficient validity to bind the colonies in all cases whatever; they have exercised this pretended right by imposing a tax upon us without our consent; and lest we should show some reluctance at parting with our property, her fleets and armies are sent to enforce their mad pretensions. The town of Boston, ever faithful to the British crown, has been invested by a British fleet; the troops of George III. have crossed the wide Atlantic, not to engage an enemy, but to assist a band of traitors in trampling on the rights and liberties of his most loyal subjects in America—those rights and liberties which, as a father, he ought ever to regard, and as a king, he is bound, in honor, to defend from violations, even at the risk of his own life.

Let not the history of the illustrious House of Brunswick inform posterity that a king descended from that glorious monarch, George II., once sent his British subjects to conquer and enslave his subjects in America, but be perpetual infamy entailed upon that villain who dared to advise his master to such execrable measures; for it was easy to foresee the consequences which so naturally followed upon sending troops into America, to enforce obedience to acts of the British Parliament, which neither God nor man ever empowered them to make. It was reasonable to expect that troops, who knew the errand they were sent upon, would treat the people whom they were to subjugate with a cruelty and haughtiness which too often buries the honorable character of a soldier in the disgraceful name of an unfeeling ruffian. The troops, upon their first arrival, took possession of our Senate-house, and pointed their cannon against the judgment hall, and even continued them there while the supreme court of judicature for this province was actually sitting upon the lives and fortunes of the King's subjects. Our streets nightly resounded with the noises of riot and debauchery; our peaceful citizens were hourly exposed to shameful insults, and often felt the effects of their violence and outrage. But this was not all; as though they thought it not enough to violate our civil right they endeavored to deprive us of the enjoyment of our religious privileges; to vitiate our morals and thereby render us deserving of destruction. Hence the rude din of arms which broke in upon your solemn devotions in your temples, on that day hallowed by heaven, and set apart by God himself for his peculiar worship. Hence, impious oaths and blasphemies so often tortured your unaccustomed ear. Hence, all the arts which idleness and luxury could invent were used to betray your youth of one sex into extravagance and effeminacy, and the other to infamy and ruin; and did they not succeed but too well? Did not a reverence for religion sensibly decay? Did not our infants almost learn to lisp out curses before they knew their horrid import? Did not our youth forget they were Americans, and, regardless of the admonitions of the wise and aged, servilely copy from their tyrants those vices which finally must overthrow the empire of Great Britain? And must I be compelled to acknowledge that even the noblest, fairest part of all the lower creation did not entirely escape the cursed snare? When virtue has once erected her throne within the female breast, it is upon so solid a basis that nothing is able to expel the heavenly inhabitant. But have there not been some, few indeed, I hope, whose youth and inexperience have rendered them a prey to wretches, whom, upon the least reflection, they would have despised and hated as foes to God and their country? I fear

there have been some unhappy instances; or why have I seen an honest father clothed with shame, or why a virtuous mother drowned in tears?

But I forbear, and come reluctantly to the transaction of that dismal night, when in such quick succession we felt the extremes of grief, astonishment and rage; when Heaven, in anger, for a dreadful moment suffered hell to take the reins; when Satan with his chosen band opened the sluices of New England's blood, and sacrilegiously polluted our land with the dead bodies of her guiltless sons. Let this sad tale of death never be told without a tear; let not the heaving bosom cease to burn with a manly indignation at the barbarous story, through the long tracts of future time; let every parent tell the shameful story to his listening children till tears of pity glisten in their eyes, and boiling passions shake their tender frames; and while the anniversary of that ill-fated night is kept a jubilee in the grim court of pandemonium, let all America join in one common prayer to Heaven, that the inhuman, unprovoked murders of March 5, 1770, planned by Hillsborough and a knot of treacherous knaves in Boston, and executed by the cruel hand of Preston and his sanguinary coadjutors, may ever stand in history without a parallel. But what, my countrymen, withheld the ready arm of vengeance from executing instant justice on the vile assassins? Perhaps you feared promiscuous carnage might ensue, and that the innocent might share the fate of those who had performed the infernal deed. But were not all guilty? Were you not too tender of the lives of those who come to fix a yoke on your necks? But I must not too severely blame a fault, which great souls only can commit. May that magnificence of spirit which scorns the low pursuits of malice, may that generous compassion which often preserves from ruin even a guilty villain, forever actuate the noble bosoms of Americans! But let not the miscreant host vainly imagine that we feared their arms. No; them we despised; we dread nothing but slavery. Death is the creature of a poltroon's brains; 'tis immortality to sacrifice ourselves for the salvation of our country. We fear not death. That gloomy night, the pale-faced moon, and the affrighted stars that hurried through the sky, can witness that we fear not death. Our hearts which, at the recollection, glow with rage that four revolving years have scarcely taught us to restrain, can witness that we fear not death; and happy it is for those who dared to insult us that their naked bones are not piled up an everlasting monument of Massachusetts bravery. But they retired, they fled, and in that flight they found their only safety. We then expected that the hand of public justice would soon inflict that punishment upon the murderers which, by the laws of God and man, they had incurred. But let the unbiased pen of a Robertson, or perhaps of some equally famed American, conduct this trial before the great tribunal of succeeding generations. And though the murderers may escape the just resentment of an enraged people; though drowsy justice, intoxicated by the poisonous draught prepared for her cup, still nods upon her rotten seat, yet be assured, such complicated crimes will meet their due reward. Tell me, ye bloody butchers! ye villains high and low! ye wretches who contrived, as well as you who executed the inhuman deed! Do you not feel the goads and stings of conscious guilt pierce through your savage bosom? Though some of you may think yourselves exalted to a height that bids defiance to human justice, and others shroud yourselves beneath the mask of hypocrisy, and build your hopes of safety on the low arts of cunning, chicanery and falsehood; yet do you not sometimes feel the gnawing of that worm which never dies? Do not the injured shades of Maverick, Gray, Caldwell, Attucks and Carr attend you in your solitary walks, arrest you even in the midst of your debaucheries, and fill even your dreams with terror? But if the unappeased manes of the dead should not disturb their murderers, yet surely even your obdurate hearts must shrink, and your guilty blood must chill within your rigid veins, when you behold the miserable Monk, the wretched victim of your savage cruelty. Observe his tottering knees, which scarce sustain his wasted body; look in his haggard eyes; mark well the deathlike paleness on his fallen cheek, and tell me, does not the sight plant daggers

in your souls? Unhappy Monk; cut off in the gay morn of manhood from all the joys which sweeten life, doomed to drag on a pitiful existence, without even a hope to taste the pleasures of returning health! Yet, Monk, thou livest a warning to thy country, which sympathizes with thee in thy sufferings; thou livest an affecting, an alarming instance of the unbounded violence which lust of power, assisted by a standing army, can lead a traitor to commit.

For us he bled, and now languishes. The wounds by which he is tortured to a lingering death were aimed at our country! Surely the meek-eyed Charity can never behold such sufferings with indifference. Nor can her lenient hand forbear to put oil and wine into these wounds, and to assuage at least what it cannot heal.

Patriotism is ever united with humanity and compassion. This noble affection which impels us to sacrifice everything dear, even life itself, to our country, involves in it a common sympathy and tenderness for every citizen, and must ever have a particular feeling for one who suffers in a public cause. Thoroughly persuaded of this, I need not add a word to engage your compassion and bounty towards a fellow-citizen who, with long-protracted anguish, falls a victim to the relentless rage of our common enemies.

Ye dark designing knaves, ye murderers, parricides! how dare you tread upon the earth, which has drank in the blood of slaughtered innocents, shed by your wicked hands? How dare you breathe that air which wafted to the ear of Heaven the groans of those who fell a sacrifice to your accursed ambition? But if the laboring earth doth not expand her jaws; if the air you breathe is not commissioned to be the minister of death, yet hear it and tremble! The eye of Heaven penetrates the darkest chambers of the soul, traces the leading clew through all the labyrinths which your industrious folly had devised; and you, however you may have screened yourselves from human eyes, must be arraigned, must lift your hands, red with the blood of those whose death you have procured, at the tremendous bar of God.

But I gladly quit the gloomy theme of death, and leave you to improve the thought of that important day, when our naked souls must stand before that Being from whom nothing can be hid. I would not dwell too long upon the horrid effects which have already followed from quartering regular troops in this town; let our misfortunes teach posterity to guard against such evils for the future. Standing armies are sometimes (I would by no means say generally, much less universally) composed of persons who have rendered themselves unfit to live in civil society; who have no other motives of conduct than those which a desire of the present gratification of their passions suggests; who have no property in any country; men who have given up their own liberties, and envy those who enjoy liberty; who are equally indifferent to the glory of a George or a Louis; who for the addition of one penny a day to their wages would desert from the Christian cross to fight under the crescent of the Turkish sultan. From such men as these what has not a state to fear? With such as these, usurping Cæsar passed the Rubicon; with such as these he humbled mighty Rome, and forced the mistress of the world to own a master in a traitor. These are the men whom sceptred robbers now employ to frustrate the designs of God, and render vain the bounties which His gracious hand pours indiscriminately upon His creatures. By these the miserable slaves in Turkey, Persia, and many other extensive countries, are rendered truly wretched, though their air is salubrious, and their soil luxuriously fertile. By these France and Spain, though blessed by nature with all that administers to the convenience of life, have been reduced to that contemptible state in which they now appear; and by these Britain—but if I were possessed of the gift of prophecy, I dare not, except by divine command, unfold the leaves on which the destiny of that once powerful kingdom is inscribed.

But, since standing armies are so hurtful to a state, perhaps my countrymen may demand some substitute, some other means of rendering us secure against the incursions of a foreign enemy. But can you be one moment at a loss? Will not a well-disciplined militia afford you ample security against foreign foes? We want not courage; it is discipline alone in which we are exceeded by the most

formidable troops that ever trod the earth. Surely our hearts flutter no more at the sound of war than did those of the immortal bands of Persia, the Macedonian phalanx, the invincible Roman legions, the Turkish janissaries, the gens-des-armes of France, or the well-known grenadiers of Britain. A well-disciplined militia is a safe, an honorable guard to a community like this, whose inhabitants are by nature brave, and are laudably tenacious of that freedom in which they were born. From a well-regulated militia we have nothing to fear; their interest is the same with that of the state. When a country is invaded, the militia are ready to appear in their defence; they march into the field with that fortitude which a consciousness of the justice of their cause inspires; they do not jeopard their lives for a master who considers them only as the instruments of his ambition, and whom they regard only as the dispenser of the scanty pittance of bread and water. No, they fight for their houses, their lands, for their wives, their children, for all who claim the tenderest names, and are held dearest in their hearts, they fight *pro aris et focis*, for their liberty, and for themselves, and for their God. And let it not offend if I say that no militia ever appeared in more flourishing condition than that of this province now doth; and, pardon me if I say—of this town in particular—I mean not to boast; I would not excite envy, but manly emulation. We have all one common cause; let it therefore be our only contest who shall most contribute to the security of the liberties of America. And may the same kind Providence which has watched over this country from her infant state, still enable us to defeat our enemies. I cannot here forbear noticing the signal manner in which the designs of those who wish not well to us have been discovered. The dark deeds of a treacherous cabal have been brought to public view. You now know the serpents who, while cherished in your bosoms, were darting their envenomed stings into the vitals of the constitution. But the representatives of the people have fixed a mark on these ungrateful monsters, which, though it may not make them so secure as Cain of old, yet renders them at least as infamous. Indeed, it would be affrontive to the tutelar deity of this country even to despair of saving it from all the snares which human policy can lay.

True it is that the British ministry have annexed a salary to the office of the governor of this province, to be paid out of a revenue, raised in America without our consent. They have attempted to render our courts of justice the instruments of extending the authority of acts of the British Parliament over this colony, by making the judges dependent on the British administration for their support. But this people will never be enslaved with their eyes open. The moment they knew that the governor was not such a governor as the charter of the province points out, he lost his power of hurting them. They were alarmed; they suspected him, have guarded against him, and he has found that a wise and a brave people, when they know their danger, are fruitful in expedients to escape it.

The courts of judicature also so far lost their dignity, by being supposed to be under an undue influence, that our representatives thought it absolutely necessary to resolve that they were bound to declare that they would not receive any other salary besides that which the general court should grant them; and, if they did not make this declaration, that it would be the duty of the House to impeach them.

Great expectations were also formed from the artful scheme of allowing the East India Company to export tea to America, upon their own account. This, certainly, had it succeeded, would have effected the purpose of the contrivers and gratified the most sanguine wishes of our adversaries. We soon should have found our trade in the hands of foreigners, and taxes imposed on everything which we consumed; nor would it have been strange if, in a few years, a company in London should have purchased an exclusive right of trading to America. But their plot was soon discovered. The people soon were aware of the poison which, with so much craft and subtlety, had been concealed; loss and disgrace ensued; and, perhaps, this long-concerted masterpiece of policy may issue in the total disuse of tea in this country, which

will eventually be the saving of the lives and the estates of thousands—yet while we rejoice that the adversary has not hitherto prevailed against us, let us by no means put off the harness. Restless malice, and disappointed ambition, will still suggest new measures to our inveterate enemies. Therefore, let us also be ready to take the field whenever danger calls; let us be united and strengthen the hands of each other by promoting a general union among us. Much has been done by the committees of correspondence for this and the other towns of this province, towards uniting the inhabitants; let them still go on and prosper. Much has been done by the committees of correspondence for the Houses of Assembly, in this and our sister colonies, for uniting the inhabitants of the whole continent, for the security of their common interest. May success ever attend their generous endeavors. But permit me here to suggest a general congress of deputies, from the several Houses of Assembly on the continent, as the most effectual method of establishing such a union as the present posture of our affairs require. At such a congress a firm foundation may be laid for the security of our rights and liberties, a system may be formed for our common safety, by a strict adherence to which we shall be able to frustrate any attempts to overthrow our constitution, restore peace and harmony to America, and secure honor and wealth to Great Britain, even against the inclinations of her ministers, whose duty it is to study her welfare; and we shall also free ourselves from those unmannerly pillagers who impudently tell us that they are licensed by an act of the British Parliament to thrust their dirty hands into the pockets of every American. But, I trust, the happy time will come when, with the besom of destruction, those noxious vermin will be swept forever from the streets of Boston.

Surely you never will tamely suffer this country to be a den of thieves. Remember, my friends, from whom you sprang. Let not a meanness of spirit, unknown to those whom you boast of as your fathers, excite a thought to the dishonor of your mothers. I conjure you by all that is dear, by all that is honorable, by all that is sacred, not only that ye pray, but that ye act; that, if necessary, ye fight, and even die, for the prosperity of our Jerusalem.

Break in sunder, with noble disdain, the bonds with which the Philistines have bound you. Suffer not yourselves to be betrayed by the soft arts of luxury and effeminacy into the pit digged for your destruction. Despise the glare of wealth. That people who pay greater respect to a wealthy villain than to an honest, upright man in poverty, almost deserve to be enslaved; they plainly show that wealth, however it may be acquired, is, in their esteem, to be preferred to virtue.

But I thank God that America abounds in men who are superior to all temptation, whom nothing can divert from a steady pursuit of the interest of their country, who are at once its ornament and safeguard. And sure I am I should not incur your displeasure if I paid a respect so justly due to their much-honored characters in this place; but, when I name an Adams, such a numerous host of fellow-patriots rush up to my mind that I fear it would take up too much of your time should I attempt to call over the illustrious roll; but your grateful hearts will point you to the men; and their revered names, in all succeeding times, shall grace the annals of America. From them, let us, my friends, take example; from them, let us catch the divine enthusiasm, and feel, each for himself, the godlike pleasure of diffusing happiness on all around us; of delivering the oppressed from the iron grasp of tyranny; of changing the hoarse complaints and bitter moans of wretched slaves into those cheerful songs which freedom and contentment must inspire. There is a heart-felt satisfaction in reflecting on our exertions for the public weal which all the sufferings an enraged tyrant can inflict will never take away; which the ingratitude and reproaches of those whom we have saved from ruin cannot rob us of. The virtuous asserter of the rights of mankind merits a reward which even a want of success in his endeavors to save his country, the heaviest misfortune which can befall a genuine patriot, cannot entirely prevent him from receiving.

I have the most animating confidence that the present noble struggle for liberty will terminate gloriously for America. And let us play the man for our God, and for the cities of our God; while we are using the means in our power, let us humbly commit our righteous cause to the great Lord of the universe, who loveth righteousness and hateth iniquity. And, having secured the approbation of our hearts by a faithful and unwearied discharge of our duty to our country, let us joyfully leave our concerns in the hands of Him who raiseth up and putteth down the empires and kingdoms of the world as He pleases; and, with cheerful submission to His sovereign will, devoutly say:

"Although the fig-tree shall not blossom, neither shall fruit be in the vines; the labor of the olive shall fail, and the field shall yield no meat; the flock shall be cut off from the fold, and there shall be no herd in the stalls; yet we will rejoice in the Lord, we will joy in the God of our salvation."

Hancock, WINFIELD SCOTT, military officer; born in Montgomery Square, Montgomery co., Pa., Feb. 14, 1824; graduated at West Point in 1844; served in the war with Mexico; and left that country

WINFIELD SCOTT HANCOCK.

quartermaster of his regiment. In September, 1861, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and served in the campaign on the Virginia peninsula in 1862. He was distinguished in the battles of South Mountain and Antietam. Having been made major-general of volunteers in November, 1862, he led a division at Fredericksburg in December; also at Chancellorsville and Gettysburg, in 1863. Placed in command of the 2d Army Corps, he led it in the campaign of the Army of the Potomac in 1864–65. In August, 1865, he was made a brigadier-general in the United States army, and in 1866 was brevetted major-general. He was in command of different military departments after the war; and was the unsuccessful Democratic candidate for the Presidency of the United States in 1880, when he received 4,444,952 votes, against 4,454,416 for James A. Garfield, the successful Republican candidate. Of him General Grant said: "Hancock stands the most conspicuous figure of all the general officers who did not exercise a separate command. He commanded a corps longer than any other one, and his name was never mentioned as having committed in battle a blunder for which he was responsible." To an adverse critic bluff General Sherman said: "If you will sit down and write the best thing that can be put into language about General Hancock as an officer and a gentleman, I will sign it without hesitation." General Hancock died on Governor's Island, New York, Feb. 9, 1886.

Hancock, FORT, one of the most important protective works on the Atlantic coast, established on Sandy Hook, N. J., about 20 miles from New York City, and named in honor of Gen. Winfield Scott Hancock. The locality was first used by the government as a proving-ground for heavy ordnance. The main ship-channel lies directly across the end of the Hook, and through this is the entrance to the lower bay of New York. This consideration suggested the advisability of making the Hook a strong fortified post, and the work was carried on so thoroughly that when war was declared against Spain (1898) Generals Miles and Merritt pronounced Fort Hancock impregnable. At that time four batteries were sent there, and the works, which can scarcely be discerned from sea, were further equipped with two 16-inch disappearing guns, one 8-inch pneumatic dynamite gun, two 12-

inch and four 10-inch rifles, and two mortar batteries of sixteen guns each.

Hand, EDWARD, military officer; born in Clyduff, King's co., Ireland, Dec. 31, 1744; came to America in the 8th Royal Irish Regiment, in 1774, as surgeon's mate; resigned his post on his arrival, and settled in Pennsylvania for the practice of the medical profession. He joined a regiment as lieutenant-colonel at the outbreak of the Revolution, and served in the siege of Boston. Made colonel in 1776, he led his regiment in the battle on Long Island, and also at Trenton. In April, 1777, he was appointed brigadier-general; and in October, 1778, succeeded Stark in command at Albany. In Sullivan's campaign against the Indians, in 1779, he was an active participant. Near the close of 1780, Hand succeeded Scammel as adjutant-general. He was a member of Congress in 1784–85, and assisted in the formation of the constitution of Pennsylvania in 1790. He died in Rockford, Lancaster co., Pa., Sept. 3, 1802.

Handy, ALEXANDER HAMILTON, jurist; born in Princess Anne, Md., Dec. 25, 1809; was admitted to the bar and settled in Mississippi in 1836. His publications include *Secession Considered as a Right;* and *Parallel between the Reign of James the Second, of England, and that of Abraham Lincoln.* He died in Canton, Miss., Sept. 12, 1883.

Hanging Rock, ACTION AT. After his unsuccessful attack on Rocky Mount, Colonel Sumter crossed the Catawba, and fell upon a British post at Hanging Rock, 12 miles east of the river, Aug. 6, 1780, commanded by Major Carden. A large number of British and Tories were there. Among the former were the infantry of Tarleton's Legion. Sumter soon dispersed them, when his men scattered through the camp, seeking plunder and drinking the liquors found there. Intoxication followed. The British rallied, and attacked the disordered patriots, and a severe skirmish ensued. The British were reinforced, and Sumter was compelled to retreat; but the British had been so severely handled that they did not attempt to pursue. With a few prisoners and some booty, Sumter retreated towards the Waxhaw, bearing away many of his wounded men. The battle lasted about four hours. Sumter lost twelve killed and forty-one wounded. At the same time Marion was smiting the British and Tories with sudden and fierce blows among the swamps of the lower country, on the borders of the Pedee; Pickens was annoying Cruger near the Saluda, and Clarke was calling for the

HANGING ROCK.

patriots along the Savannah and other Georgia streams to drive Brown from Augusta. Hanging Rock is a huge conglomerate bowlder near the Lancaster and Camden highway, a few miles east of the Catawba River, in South Carolina. It is a shelving rock, 20 or 30 feet in diameter, lying on the verge of a high bank of a small stream, nearly 100 feet above it. Under its concavity fifty men might find shelter from rain.

Hanna, MARCUS ALONZO, United States Senator; born in Lisbon, O., Sept. 24, 1837; removed to Cleveland in 1852, where he was educated in the common schools

and the Western Reserve College. In 1896 he became chairman of the National Republican Committee. He directed the Republican campaigns of 1896 and 1900,

MARCUS ALONZO HANNA.

securing the nomination and election of President McKinley. In 1897 he was elected United States Senator, and was re-elected for the term ending 1905. Until his election as chairman of the Republican National Committee Mr. Hanna was not actively interested in politics. He died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 15, 1904.

Hanover, BATTLE AT. General Meade's cavalry, during Lee's invasion of Maryland, before the battle of GETTYSBURG (*q. v.*), was continually hovering on the flanks of the Confederate army. The most dashing of the cavalry officers of that time were Colonels Kilpatrick and Custer. At about the same hour when Buford's division occupied Gettysburg, June 29, 1863, Kilpatrick, passing through Hanover, a few miles from Gettysburg, was suddenly surprised by Stuart's cavalry, then on their march for Carlisle. Stuart led in person, and made a desperate charge on the flank and rear of Farnsworth's brigade, at the eastern end of the village. A severe battle ensued in the town and on its borders, when Custer joined in the fight with his troops, and the Confederates were repulsed. The Nationals lost about 500 men.

Hansbrough, HENRY CLAY; born in Prairie du Rocher, Ill., Jan. 30, 1848; connected with the newspaper press, 1867–89; member of Congress 1889–91; United States Senator from North Dakota in 1891; re-elected in 1897 and in 1903.

Hanson, ALEXANDER CONTEE, editor; born in Maryland, Feb. 27, 1786. While editor of the *Federal Republican*, in Baltimore, he denounced the administration, and a mob destroyed his printing-office, June 22, 1812. The journal was re-established, and a second mob attacked the building, July 28. Hanson and his party, including Gen. Henry Lee, Gen. James M. Lingan, and others, surrendered on condition that the property was to be protected. The mob attacked the jail, killed General Lingan, wounded General Lee, and left Hanson and others for dead. In 1813 Hanson was elected to Congress, and in 1817 to the United States Senate. He died April 23, 1819.

Hanson, JOHN, legislator; born in Charles county, Md., in 1715; member of the State legislature in 1757–81, and of the Continental Congress in 1781–83, of which he was elected president. He died in Oxen Hills, Md., Nov. 22, 1783.

Haraden, JONATHAN, naval officer; born in Gloucester, Mass., in 1745. At the beginning of the Revolutionary War he entered the navy; later was made captain and placed in command of the *Pickering*. He captured a British privateer in a night attack in the Bay of Biscay, and defeated another one, of 140 men and forty-two guns. Subsequently he took three armed vessels one after another. It is said that during the war he captured almost 1,000 cannon. He was himself captured with all his ships by Rodney, the English commander in the West Indies, in 1781. He died in Salem, Mass., Nov. 26, 1803.

Hard-cider Campaign. Political parties are always seeking catch-words to use in a campaign with effect among the least thoughtful of the people. Gen. William Henry Harrison lived in the growing West, and his dwelling had once been a log-house, at North Bend, where he exercised great hospitality. In the campaign of 1840 a log-cabin was chosen as a symbol of the plain and un-

pretentious Harrison, and a barrel of cider as that of his hospitality. During the campaign, all over the country, in hamlets, villages, and cities, log-cabins were erected and fully supplied with barrels of cider. These houses were the usual gathering-places of the partisans of Harrison, young and old, and to every one hard cider was freely given. The meetings were often mere drunken carousals that were injurious to all, and especially to youth. Many a drunkard afterwards pointed sadly to the hard-cider campaign in 1840, as the time of his departure from sobriety and respectability.

Hardee, WILLIAM JOSEPH, military officer; born in Savannah, Ga., Oct. 10, 1815; graduated at West Point in 1838, entering the dragoons; and in 1860 was lieutenant of the 1st Cavalry. In 1856 he published *United States Rifle and Light Infantry Tactics,* being mainly a compilation from French sources. Resigning in January, 1861, he joined the Confederates, and in June was appointed brigadier-general in their army. For bravery in the battle of SHILOH (*q. v.*) he was promoted to major-general, and in October, 1862, lieutenant-general. He was very active in military operations in Arkansas, Mississippi, Tennessee, and Georgia; and after the defeat of the Confederates at Missionary Ridge, late in 1863, he succeeded Bragg in the chief command, until relieved by General Johnston. He commanded at Savannah and Charleston at the time of their capture, early in 1865; fought at Averasboro and Bentonville, N. C.; and surrendered with Johnston's army, April 27, 1865. He died in Wytheville, Va., Nov. 6, 1873.

Hardin, JOHN, military officer; born in Fauquier county, Va., Oct. 1, 1753; participated in Dunmore's expedition, and served throughout the Revolution as lieutenant. He removed to Kentucky in 1786, and took part in various expeditions against the Indians. While bearing a flag of truce near Shawneetown, O., he was killed by the Indians, in April, 1792.

Hards. See HUNKERS.

Hare, JOHN INNES CLARK, jurist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 17, 1817; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1834; admitted to the bar in 1841; became an associate judge of the district court of Philadelphia; and was presiding judge of the court of common pleas in 1875–95. He published *American Leading Cases in Law* (with Horace B. Wallis), etc.; and was editor of *Smith's Leading Cases in Law; White and Tudor's Leading Cases in Equity; Hare on Contracts;* and the *New England Exchequer Reports.*

Harford, HENRY, a natural son of Frederick Calvert, the fifth Lord Baltimore, who was a man of some literary accomplishments, but of dissolute habits, and who died without lawful issue. He bequeathed the province of Maryland to this illegitimate son, who was then (1771) a boy at school. Lord Baltimore's brother-in-law, Robert Eden, had succeeded Sharpe as governor of Maryland, and he continued to administer the government of the province in behalf of the boy, until the fires of the Revolution consumed royalty in all the provinces.

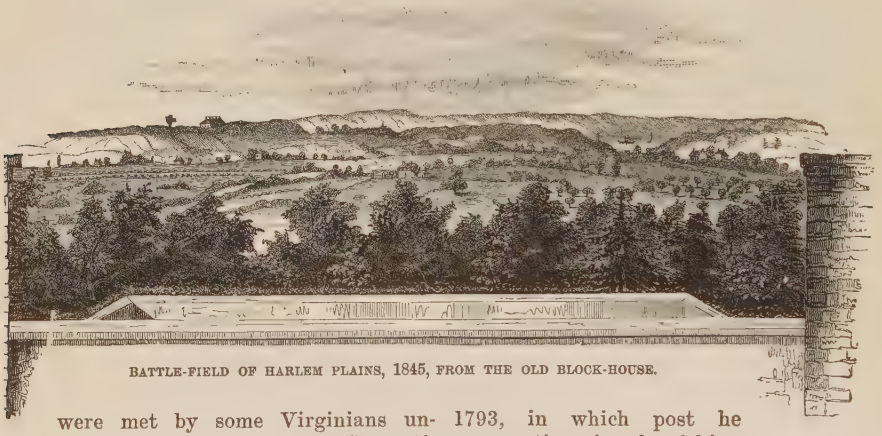
Harker, CHARLES G., military officer; born in Swedesboro, N. J., Dec. 2, 1837; graduated at West Point in 1858, and in the fall of 1861 was colonel of Ohio volunteers. He was made brigadier-general in September, 1863. He did good service in Tennessee and Georgia, especially in the battle of Shiloh, the siege of Corinth, the battles of Murfreesboro, Chickamauga, and Missionary Ridge. He commanded a brigade under General Howard in the Georgia campaign, and distinguished himself at Resaca. He was killed near Kenesaw Mountain, June 27, 1864.

Harlan, JAMES, statesman; born in Clarke county, Ill., Aug. 25, 1820; removed to Iowa in 1853; United States Senator, 1855–65; Secretary of the Interior, 1865–66; United States Senator, 1866–73. He died in Mount Pleasant, Iowa, Oct. 5, 1899.

Harlan, JOHN MARSHALL, jurist; born in Boyle county, Ky., June 1, 1833; graduated at Centre College in 1850; colonel of the 10th Ky. U. S. V., 1861–63; attorney-general of Kentucky, 1863–67, when he resumed practice. In 1871 and 1875 he was defeated as the Republican candidate for governor. On Nov. 29, 1877, he became an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court. In 1893 President Harrison appointed him one of the American

arbitrators of the Bering Sea tribunal, which met in Paris.

Harlem Plains, ACTION AT. On the morning of Sept. 16, 1776, the British advanced guard, under Colonel Leslie, occupied the rocky heights now at the northern end of the Central Park. His force was composed of British infantry and Highlanders, with several pieces of artillery. Descending to Harlem Plains, they



BATTLE-FIELD OF HARLEM PLAINS, 1845, FROM THE OLD BLOCK-HOUSE.

were met by some Virginians under Major Leitch, and Connecticut Rangers under Colonel Knowlton. A desperate conflict ensued. Washington soon reinforced the Americans with some Maryland and New England troops, with whom Generals Putnam, Greene, and others took part to encourage the men. The British were pushed back to the rocky heights, where they were reinforced by Germans, when the Americans fell back towards Harlem Heights. In this spirited engagement the Americans lost about sixty men, including Major Leitch and Colonel Knowlton, who were killed.

Harmar, JOSIAH, military officer; born in Philadelphia in 1753; was educated chiefly in the school of Robert Proud, the Quaker and historian; entered the army as captain of a Pennsylvania regiment in 1776; was its lieutenant-colonel in 1777; and served faithfully through the war in the North and the South. Made brevet colonel in the United States army in September, 1783, he was sent to France in 1784 with the ratification of the definitive treaty of peace. He was made Indian agent for the territory northwest of the Ohio, and in 1787 Congress made him a brevet brigadier-general. On Sept. 29, 1789, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the army of the United States, and had charge of an expedition against the Miami Indians in the fall of 1790, but was defeated. Harmar resigned his commission in January, 1792, and was made adjutant-general of Pennsylvania in 1793, in which post he was active in furnishing Pennsylvania troops for Wayne's campaign in 1793–94. He died in Philadelphia, Aug. 20, 1813.

At the time of his expedition against the Indians, the British, in violation of the treaty of 1783, still held Detroit and other Western military posts. British agents instigated the Indians of the Northwest to make war on the frontier settlers, in order to secure for British commerce the monopoly of the fur-trade. This had been kept up ever since 1783, and the posts were held with a hope that the league of States would fall to pieces, and an opportunity would be afforded to bring back the new republic to colonial dependence. Sir John Johnson, former Indian agent, was again on the frontier, and Lord Dorchester (Sir Guy Carleton) was again governor of Canada, which gave strength to the opinion that the discontents of the Indians were fostered for a political purpose. The Northwestern tribes, encouraged by the British agents, insisted upon re-establishing the

FORT WASHINGTON, ON THE SITE OF CINCINNATI.

Ohio River as the Indian boundary. Attempts to make a peaceable arrangement were unsuccessful. The Indians would listen to no terms; and in September, 1790, General Harmar led more than 1,000 volunteers from Fort Washington (now Cincinnati) into the Indian country around the head-waters of the Maumee (or Miami), to chastise the hostile Indians. He did not succeed. He found the Indians near the head of the Maumee, at the junction of the St. Joseph's and St. Mary's rivers, late in October, 1790. Four hundred men were detached to attack them, of whom sixty were regulars, under Major Wyllys. These reached the Maumee after sunrise on Oct. 23. Militia under Major Hall proceeded to pass around the Indian village at the head of the Maumee, and assist, in their rear, an attack of the main body on their front. The latter were to cross the Maumee at the usual ford, and then surround the Indians, who were led by the celebrated chief, Little Turtle. Before this could be effected the Indian encampment was aroused, and a part of them fled. Some of the militia and the cavalry who had passed the ford started in pursuit, in disobedience of orders, leaving the regulars, who had also passed the ford, unsupported, when the latter were attacked by Little Turtle and the main body of the Indians, and driven back with great slaughter. Meanwhile the militia and cavalry pursuers were skirmishing with the Indians a short distance up the St. Joseph's. They were compelled to fall back in confusion towards the ford, and followed the remnant of the regulars in their retreat. The Indians did not pursue. The whole expedition then returned to Fort Washington.

THE MAUMEE FORD, PLACE OF HARMAR'S DEFEAT.

Harmony Society. A communistic society settled at Economy, near Pittsburg. George Rapp, the head of the society, was born in Würtemburg, Germany, October, 1757; died at Economy in 1847. Rapp and a few of his adherents sailed for America in 1803, and founded the town of Harmony in Pennsylvania. In 1814 they established the town of New Harmony in Indiana, selling their old home for $100,000. In 1824 they sold the town of New Harmony and 20,000 acres of land to Robert Owen for $150,000, and made a new settlement in Pennsylvania which they named Economy. Originally each family retained its property, but in 1807 they established a community of goods and adopted celibacy. As the society did not seek new members, it rapidly approached extinction, and in 1903 their membership was so reduced that they gave up commercial life and sold their property for $2,500,000.

Harnett, CORNELIUS, statesman; presumably born in North Carolina, although some authorities say in England, April 20, 1723; became owner of a large estate near Wilmington, being a man of considerable wealth. He was influential in his State, and was among the first to

HARNETT'S HOUSE.

denounce the Stamp Act and kindred measures. He was a leading man in all public assemblages as the Revolutionary War approached; was president of the provincial congress in 1775; and on the abdication of the royal governor (Martin) became acting governor of the State. He was excepted in an offer of pardon to the inhabitants of North Carolina by Sir Henry Clinton, in which exception was included Robert Howe. He was the chief constructor of the constitution of North Carolina, framed in 1776, under which Harnett became one of the council; and in 1778 he was elected to Congress. While the British held possession of the country adjacent to Cape Fear River in 1781, Harnett was made prisoner, and died in confinement, April 20, 1781. His dwelling was a fine old mansion, about a mile and a half from the centre of the city of Wilmington, N. C., on the northeast branch of the Cape Fear River.

Harney, WILLIAM SELBY, military officer; born in Louisiana in 1798; entered the army while quite young; was in the Black Hawk War; and was made lieutenant-colonel of dragoons in 1836. Ten years later he was colonel. He served in the FLORIDA, or SEMINOLE, WAR (*q. v.*), and in the war with Mexico. In 1848 he was brevetted brigadier-general for his services in the battle of CERRO GORDO (*q. v.*). He was promoted to brigadier-general in 1858, and placed in command of the Department of Oregon; and in July, 1859, took possession of the island of San Juan, near Vancouver, which England claimed to be a part of British Columbia, and which the United States soon afterwards evacuated. Harney then commanded the Department of the West; and in April, 1861, while on his way to Washington, he was arrested by the Confederates at Harper's Ferry, Va., and taken to Richmond. He was soon released, and, on returning to St. Louis, issued proclamations warning the people of Missouri of the dangers of secession. In consequence of an unauthorized truce with Price, the Confederate leader, Harney was relieved of his command. He retired in August, 1863; was brevetted major-general, United States army, in March, 1865; and was a member of the Indian Commission in 1867. He died in Orlando, Fla., May 9, 1889.

Harper, IDA HUSTED, author; born in Fairfield, Ind.; received a collegiate education; conducted the women's department in the Terre Haute *Saturday Evening Mail* and in the *Fireman's Magazine* for twelve years; managing editor of the Terre Haute *Daily News*, and later was on the editorial staff of the Indianapolis

News, McClure's syndicate; and the New York *Sun*. She was one of the speakers at the International Congress of Women, in London in 1899; chairman of the International Press Committee for five years; and author of *Life and Work of Susan B. Anthony* and *History of Woman Suffrage to the Close of the Nineteenth Century* (with Susan B. Anthony).

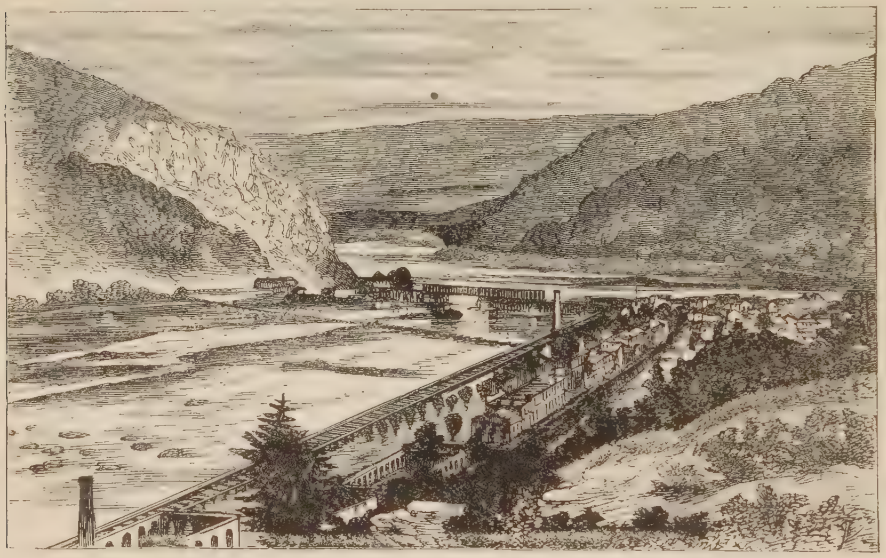
Harper, ROBERT GOODLOE, Senator; born in Fredericksburg, Va., in 1765; removed to North Carolina, and towards the close of the Revolutionary War served as a trooper under General Greene; graduated at Princeton in 1785; admitted to the bar in 1786; and served in Congress from 1795 to 1801. During the War of 1812 he was in active service, attaining the rank of major-general. Afterwards he was elected to the United States Senate from Maryland, to which place he had removed upon his marriage with the daughter of Charles Carroll of Carrollton, but resigned in 1816, when he was the Federal candidate for Vice-President. He published an *Address on the British Treaty* in 1796, and a pamphlet on the *Dispute between the United States and France* in 1797. He died in Baltimore, Md., Jan. 15, 1825.

Harper, WILLIAM RAINEY, educator; born in New Concord, O., July 26, 1856; graduated at Muskingum College in 1870; principal of the Masonic College, Macon, Tenn., in 1875–76; tutor in the preparatory department of Denison University, Ohio, in 1876–79, and principal there in 1879–80. In the latter year he became professor of Hebrew in the Baptist Union Theological Seminary at Chicago, where he continued till 1886, when he was called to the chair of Semitic languages in Yale University. In 1891 he became president of the University of Chicago, also taking the chair there of Semitic languages and literature. In 1903 the university had 347 professors and instructors; 4,463 students in all departments; 80 fellowships; 200 scholarships; 367,440 volumes in the library; 2,200 graduates since organization; $9,204,195 in productive funds; $2,437,663 in benefactions (previous year); and $982,610 in ordinary income. For various purposes John D. Rockefeller had given the university up to the end of 1903 an aggregate of $13,000,000, and citizens of Chicago a total of about $7,000,000. He is the author of *Elements of Hebrew Syntax; Hebrew Vocabularies; An Introductory New Testament, Greek Method* (with Revere F. Weidner), etc., and associate editor of *The Biblical World; The American Journal of Theology;* and *The American Journal of Semitic Languages and Literature.*

Harper's Farm. See SAILOR'S CREEK.

Harper's Ferry, a town in Jefferson county, W. Va.; 49 miles northwest of Washington; at the junction of the Shenandoah and Potomac rivers; the scene of several stirring events during the Civil War period. Within twenty-four hours after the passage of the ordinance of secession by the Virginia convention, April 17, 1861, the authorities of that State set forces in motion to seize the United States armory and arsenal in the town, in which the national government had 10,000 muskets made every year, and in which from 80,000 to 90,000 stand of arms were generally stored. When the secession movement began, at the close of 1860, measures were taken for the security of this post. A small body of United States dragoons, under the command of Lieut. Roger Jones, was sent there as a precautionary measure. After the attack on Fort Sumter, rumors reached Harper's Ferry that the government property there would be speedily seized by the Virginians. The rumors were true. On the morning of April 18 the military commanders at Winchester and Charlestown received orders from Richmond to seize the armory and arsenal that night. They were further ordered to march into Maryland, where, it was expected, they would be joined by the minute-men of that State in an immediate attack on Washington. About 3,000 men were ordered out, but only about 250 were at the designated rendezvous, 4 miles from the Ferry, at the appointed hour—eight o'clock in the evening—but others were on the march. The cavalry, only about twenty strong, were commanded by Captain Ashby. When the detachment was within a mile of the Ferry, there was suddenly a flash and explosion in that direction. This was quickly repeated, and the mountain heights were soon illuminated by flames. Ashby dashed towards the town,and soon re-

turned with a report that the armory and arsenal were on fire, and that the National troops had crossed the Potomac, and taken the mountain road in the direction of Carlisle Barracks, in Pennsylvania. Lieutenant Jones had been secretly warned, twenty-four hours before, of the plan for seizing the post that night. There were indications all around him of impending troubles. Trains of powder were so prepared that, at a moment's warning, the powder in the magazine might be exploded, and the government buildings be set on fire. Word came to Jones, at near ten o'clock at night, that 2,000 Virginians were within twenty minutes' march of him. The trains were fired, and the whole public property that was combustible was soon in ashes. Then Jones and his little garrison fled across the Potomac, and reached Hagerstown in the morning, and thence pushed on to Chambersburg and Carlisle Barracks. Jones was highly commended by his government. The Confederate forces immediately took possession of ruined Harper's Ferry as a strategic point. Within a month fully 8,000 Virginians, Kentuckians, Alabamians, and South Carolinians were there, menacing Washington.

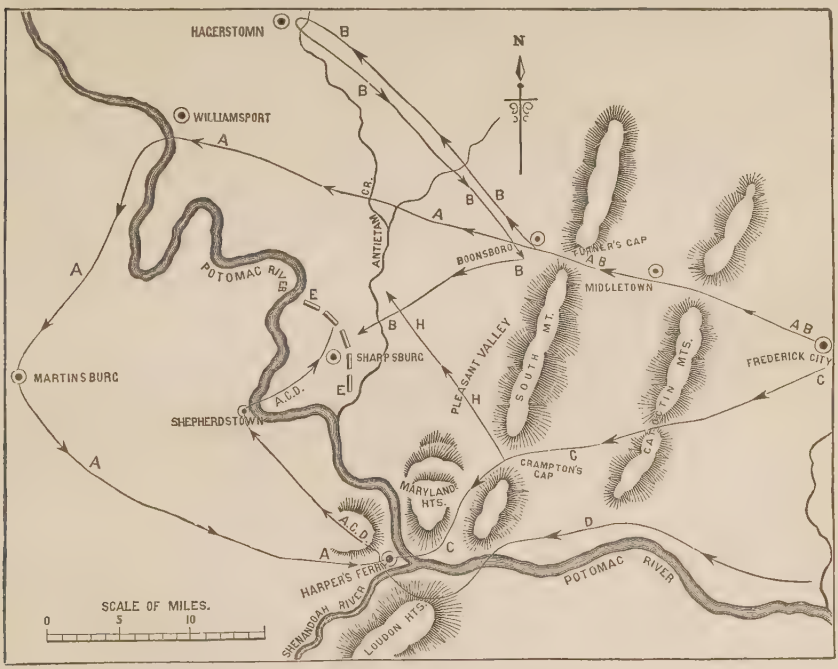


VIEW OF HARPER'S FERRY, 1862, LOOKING SOUTH.

Gen. Joseph E. Johnston was then charged with the duty of holding Harper's Ferry. General McClellan was throwing Ohio troops into western Virginia, and Gen. Robert Patterson, in command of the Department of Pennsylvania, was rapidly gathering a force at Chambersburg, Pa., under Gen. W. H. Keim. A part of the Confederates at the Ferry were on Maryland Heights, on the left bank of the Potomac, and against these Patterson marched from Chambersburg with about 15,000 men in June, 1861. Just at this moment commenced Wallace's dash on Romney, which frightened Johnston, and he abandoned Harper's Ferry, and moved up the valley to Winchester. Before leaving he destroyed the great bridge of the Baltimore and Ohio Railway at the Ferry with fire and gunpowder. It was 1,000 feet long. Then he spiked the heavy guns that could not be taken away, and encamped a few miles up the valley. Patterson, who was at Hagerstown, Md., pushed on, and on June 16 and 17 about 9,000 of his troops crossed the Potomac by fording it at Williamsport. These were led by Brig.-Gen. George Cadwalader, at the head of five companies of cavalry. At that moment Patterson received orders by telegraph from General Scott, at Washington, to send

to him all the regulars, horse and foot, under his (Patterson's) command, and a Rhode Island regiment. Patterson was embarrassed, and requested the general to leave the regulars with him, for he expected to hold the position and to keep open a free communication with the great West by the Baltimore and Ohio Railway. Scott refused, saying, "We are pressed here; send the troops without delay." The order was obeyed, and Patterson was left without a single piece of available artillery, with only one troop of raw cavalry, and a total force of not more than 10,000 men, mostly undisciplined, to confront Johnston with fully 15,000 drilled troops. Patterson prudently recrossed the Potomac, and remained on the Maryland side until the beginning of July.

While Lee was in Maryland, in September, 1862, Harper's Ferry, where a large amount of stores had been gathered, was held by National troops, under Col. D. H. Miles. When that post was threatened, Halleck instructed McClellan to succor the garrison, and on the day of the struggle at Turner's Gap (see SOUTH MOUNTAIN) he ordered Miles to hold out to the last extremity. Meanwhile Jackson, by quick movements, had crossed the Potomac at Williamsport, and at noon on Sept. 13 he was in the rear of Harper's Ferry. The Confederates were then in possession of Loudon Heights and also of Maryland Heights, which commanded Harper's Ferry. That post was completely invested by the Confederates on the 14th. Miles was told by McClellan to "hold on," and also informed how he might safely escape. But he appeared to pay no attention to instructions, and to make no effort at defence; and when, early on the 15th, no less than nine bat-



MOVEMENTS AROUND HARPER'S FERRY, FROM SEPT. 10 TO 17, 1862.

A, A. Jackson's march from Frederick to Sharpsburg.
B, B. Longstreet's march from Frederick to Sharpsburg.
C, C. McLaws and Anderson's march from Frederick to Sharpsburg.
D, D. Walker's march from Monocacy to Sharpsburg.
E, E. Confederate position at Antietam.
H, H. Franklin's march from Pleasant Valley to Antietam.

Franklin followed the same route as McLaws from Frederick to Pleasant Valley; the remainder of the Union Army that of Longstreet from Frederick to Boonesboro, and thence to the Antietam. The arrows show the direction of the march. Where two or more letters come together, it indicates that the several bodies followed the same route.

BURNING OF THE ARSENAL, HARPER'S FERRY

teries opened upon the garrison, he displayed a white flag. Before it was seen by the Confederates, one of their shots had killed him. The post was surrendered, with all its troops, ordnance, ammunition, and stores. There were 11,583 men—half of them New-Yorkers—surrendered, and the spoils were seventy-three cannon, 13,000 small-arms, 200 wagons and a large quantity of tents and camp equipage. It was shown that Miles had disobeyed orders to take measures for the defence of the post, and he was strongly suspected of sympathy with the Confederate cause. See also BROWN, JOHN (OSSAWATOMIE).

Harriman, WALTER, legislator; born in Warner, N. H., April 8, 1817; was several times elected to the State legislature. At the outbreak of the Civil War he entered the army as colonel of the 11th New Hampshire Regiment; served throughout the war, reaching the rank of brevet brigadier-general. He was elected secretary of state of New Hampshire in 1865, and governor in 1867. He was the author of a *History of Warner, N. H.* He died in Concord, N. H., July 25, 1884.

Harrington, TIMOTHY, clergyman; born in Waltham, Mass., in 1715; became a Congregational pastor in 1741. It is of him that the amusing story is told that, having always been in the habit of praying for "our gracious sovereign King George" before the Revolutionary War, after the war broke out he at one time, through habit, uttered the accustomed prayer, but hastily added, "O Lord, I mean George Washington!" He died in Lancaster, Mass., Dec. 18, 1795.

Harriott, THOMAS, astronomer, historian, and friend of Sir Walter Raleigh; born in Oxford, England, in 1560. In 1585 he accompanied Raleigh's expedition to Virginia, under Grenville, as historian, and most of the knowledge of that expedition is derived from Harriott's account. He was left there by Grenville, and remained a year, making observations; and from the pencil of With, an artist, he obtained many useful drawings. Harriott labored hard to restrain the cupidity of his companions, who were more intent upon finding gold than tilling the soil. While Governor Lane declared that Virginia had "the goodliest soil under the cope of heaven," and "if Virginia had but horses and kine, and were inhabited by English, no realm in Christendom were comparable to it," he utterly neglected the great opportunity. Harriott

saw that the way to accomplish that object was to treat the Indians kindly, as friends and neighbors; and he tried to quench the fires of revenge which the cruelty of the English had kindled. The natives were curious and credulous. They regarded the English with awe. Their firearms, burning-glasses, clocks, watches, and books seemed to the savage mind like the work of the gods. As the colonists were never sick, and had no women with them, the natives thought that they were not born of women, and were, therefore, immortal. Taking advantage of this feeling Harriott displayed the Bible everywhere, and told them of its precious truths, and it was often pressed to their bosoms affectionately. When King Wingina fell ill, he sent for Harriott, and, dismissing his juggling priest and "medicine-man," placed himself under the Englishman's care. He invoked the prayers of the English, and, under the careful nursing of the historian, the king speedily recovered. Many of his subjects resorted to Harriott when they fell sick. Had his example been followed, Virginia might soon have been "inhabited by English," and filled with "horses and kine." On his return to England, Harriott published a *Brief and True Report of the New Found Land of Virginia.* From the Earl of Northumberland he received a pension, and spent much of his time in the Tower with Raleigh and his wife. Harriott was the inventor of the present improved method of algebraic calculation by introducing the signs $>$ and $<$. He died in London, July 2, 1621.

Harris, Caleb Fiske, bibliophile; born in Warwick, R. I., March 9, 1818; formed a library of 5,000 volumes of American poetry and plays, which was subsequently bequeathed to Brown University by his cousin, Henry B. Anthony. He died in Moosehead Lake, Me., Oct. 2, 1881.

Harris, George, Lord, military officer; born March 18, 1746; became captain in 1771, and came to America in 1775. He was in the skirmish at Lexington and was wounded in the battle of Bunker Hill. In the battles of Long Island, Harlem Plains, and White Plains, and in every battle in which General Howe, Sir Henry Clinton, and Earl Cornwallis, in the North, participated, until late in 1778, he was an actor. Then he went on an expedition to the West Indies; served under Byron off Grenada in 1779; also, afterwards, in India, and in 1798 was made governor of Madras, and placed at the head of the army against Tippoo Sultan, capturing Seringapatam, for which service he received public thanks and promotion. In 1812 he was raised to the peerage. He died in Belmont, Kent, England, May 19, 1829.

Harris, Isham Green, legislator; born at Tullahoma, Tenn., Feb. 10, 1818; was elected to Congress in 1848; governor of Tennessee in 1857, 1859, and 1861; served in the Confederate army throughout the Civil War in various capacities, usually as volunteer aide on the staff. At the conclusion of the war he emigrated to Mexico and subsequently to England, but returned to Tennessee in 1867. He was elected United States Senator in 1877, 1883, 1889, and 1895. He died in Washington, D. C., July 8, 1897.

Harris, Joel Chandler, author; born in Eatonton, Ga., Dec. 8, 1848. Among his works are *Uncle Remus; History of Georgia; Stories of Georgia,* etc.

Harris, Thaddeus Mason, clergyman; born in Charlestown, Mass., July 17, 1768; became pastor of the First Unitarian Church in Dorchester, Mass., in 1793. He was the author of *Journal of a Tour of the Territory Northwest of the Alleghany Mountains; History of the First Church at Dorchester; Memoir of James Oglethorpe,* etc. He died in Dorchester, April 3, 1842.

Harris, William Thaddeus, author; born in Milton, Mass., Jan. 25, 1826; graduated at Harvard College in 1846. He was the author of *Epitaphs from the Old Burying-Ground at Cambridge,* and editor of *History of New England* and of the third volume of the *Historical and Genealogical Register.* He died in Cambridge, Mass., Oct. 19, 1854.

Harris, William Torrey, educator; born in North Killingly, Conn., Sept. 10, 1835; studied in Yale University, but did not graduate. During 1857–67 he was principal and assistant superintendent in the St. Louis public schools; in the latter year was appointed superintendent, but in 1880 was forced by ill health to resign. In 1880 he was a delegate from the United States bureau of education to the international congress of educators

in Brussels. On Sept. 13, 1889, he became United States commissioner of education. Dr. Harris founded in St. Louis the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy* in 1867, and in 1901 was still conducting it. He was chief editor of Appleton's series of *School Readers*, and editor of Appleton's *Educational* series. His other publications include: *Introduction to the Study of Philosophy; Hegel's Logic; Critical Expositions;* and *Psychologic Foundations of Education.* See EDUCATION, ELEMENTARY.

Harrison, BENJAMIN, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Berkeley, Va., in 1740; was a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses in 1764, and soon became a leader among the patriots of the day. An attempt to bribe him to support the Stamp Act by offering him a seat in the council excited his indignation, though he had opposed Henry's resolutions on the subject. He was a member of various associations and committees, and was a delegate to the first Colonial Congress, in 1774. In that body he was efficient as chairman of the board of war. He advocated independence in 1776, and signed the great Declaration. He resigned his seat in 1777; again entered the House of Burgesses, and was chosen its speaker. This post he held until 1782, when he was elected governor of the State, and was twice re-elected. Governor Harrison did not like the national Constitution, and voted against it in convention. He died in Berkeley, in April, 1791.

HARRISON, BENJAMIN

Harrison, BENJAMIN, twenty-third President of the United States, from 1889 to 1893; Republican; born in North Bend, O., Aug. 20, 1833; grandson of William Henry Harrison, the ninth President of the United States, and great-grandson of Benjamin Harrison, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, and for three successive terms governor of Virginia. He graduated at Miami University, O., in 1852, and soon after began the study of law in Cincinnati. In 1854 he settled in Indianapolis and entered upon practice. On Jan. 23, 1865, he was brevetted a brigadier-general of volunteers, in the Union army; and when, soon afterwards, the war was brought to a termination, he returned to Indianapolis. In 1880 he was chosen United States Senator from Indiana, and took his seat in that body on March 4. At the Republican National Convention in 1888, he received the nomination for the Presidency on the eighth ballot. At the election in November he was chosen President, receiving 233 electoral votes to Grover Cleveland's 168. The popular vote was 5,440,216 for Harrison, and 5,538,233 for Cleveland (see CABINET, PRESIDENT'S). In 1892 both he and Mr. Cleveland were renominated, and he was defeated by the latter, receiving 145 electoral and 5,176,108 popular votes against 277 electoral and 5,556,918 popular votes for Mr. Cleveland.

In 1898 he became chief counsel for VENEZUELA (*q. v.*) in the boundary dispute between that country and Great Britain, and in 1899 an American member of The Hague Arbitration Commission. He died in Indianapolis, Ind., March 13, 1901. See ANNEXED TERRITORY, STATUS OF.

Inaugural Address.—On March 4, 1889, President Harrison delivered the following inaugural address:

Fellow-citizens,—There is no constitutional or legal requirement that the President shall take the oath of office in the presence of the people, but there is so manifest an appropriateness in the public induction to office of the chief executive officer of the nation that from the beginning of the government the people, to whose service the official oath consecrates the officer, have been called to witness the solemn ceremonial. The oath taken in the presence of the people becomes a mutual covenant. The officer covenants to serve the whole body of the people by a faithful execution of the laws, so that they may be the unfailing defence and security of those who respect and observe them, and that neither wealth, station, nor the power of combinations shall be able to evade their just penalties or to wrest

Benj Harrison

them from a beneficent public purpose to serve the ends of cruelty or selfishness.

My promise is spoken; yours unspoken, but not the less real and solemn. The people of every State have here their representatives. Surely I do not misinterpret the spirit of the occasion when I assume that the whole body of the people covenant with me and with each other to-day to support and defend the Constitution and the Union of the States, to yield willing obedience to all the laws, and each to every other citizen his equal civil and political rights. Entering thus solemnly into covenant with each other, we may reverently invoke and confidingly expect the favor and help of Almighty God—that He will give to me wisdom, strength, and fidelity, and to our people a spirit of fraternity and a love of righteousness and peace.

This occasion derives peculiar interest from the fact that the Presidential term which begins this day is the twenty-sixth under our Constitution. The first inauguration of President Washington took place in New York, where Congress was then sitting, on the 30th day of April, 1789, having been deferred by reason of delays attending the organization of the Congress and the canvass of the electoral vote. Our people have already worthily observed the centennials of the Declaration of Independence, of the battle of Yorktown, and of the adoption of the Constitution, and will shortly celebrate in New York the institution of the second great department of our constitutional scheme of government. When the centennial of the institution of the judicial department, by the organization of the Supreme Court, shall have been suitably observed, as I trust it will be, our nation will have fully entered its second century.

I will not attempt to note the marvellous and in great part happy contrasts between our country as it steps over the threshold into its second century of organized existence under the Constitution, and that weak but wisely ordered young nation that looked undauntedly down the first century, when all its years stretched out before it.

Our people will not fail at this time to recall the incidents which accompanied the institution of government under the Constitution, or to find inspiration and guidance in the teachings and example of Washington and his great associates, and hope and courage in the contrast which thirty-eight populous and prosperous States offer to the thirteen States, weak in everything except courage and the love of liberty, that then fringed our Atlantic seaboard.

The Territory of Dakota has now a population greater than any of the original States (except Virginia), and greater than the aggregate of five of the smaller States in 1790. The centre of population when our national capital was located was east of Baltimore, and it was argued by many well-informed persons that it would move eastward rather than westward; yet in 1880 it was found to be near Cincinnati, and the new census about to be taken will show another stride to the westward. That which was the body has come to be only the rich fringe of the nation's robe. But our growth has not been limited to territory, population, and aggregate wealth, marvellous as it has been in each of those directions. The masses of our people are better fed, clothed, and housed than their fathers were. The facilities for popular education have been vastly enlarged and more generally diffused.

The virtues of courage and patriotism have given recent proof of their continued presence and increasing power in the hearts and over the lives of our people. The influences of religion have been multiplied and strengthened. The sweet offices of charity have greatly increased. The virtue of temperance is held in higher estimation. We have not attained an ideal condition. Not all of our people are happy and prosperous; not all of them are virtuous and law-abiding. But on the whole the opportunities offered to the individual to secure the comforts of life are better than are found elsewhere, and largely better than they were here 100 years ago.

The surrender of a large measure of sovereignty to the general government, effected by the adoption of the Constitution, was not accomplished until the suggestions of reason were strongly reinforced by the more imperative voice of experience. The divergent interests of peace speedily demanded a "more perfect union." The merchant, the ship-master,

and the manufacturer discovered and disclosed to our statesmen and to the people that commercial emancipation must be added to the political freedom which had been so bravely won. The commercial policy of the mother-country had not relaxed any of its hard and oppressive features. To hold in check the development of our commercial marine, to prevent or retard the establishment and growth of manufactures in the States, and so to secure the American market for their shops and the carrying trade for their ships, was the policy of European statesmen, and was pursued with the most selfish vigor.

Petitions poured in upon Congress urging the imposition of discriminating duties that should encourage the production of needed things at home. The patriotism of the people, which no longer found a field of exercise in war, was energetically directed to the duty of equipping the young republic for the defence of its independence by making its people self-dependent. Societies for the promotion of home manufactures and for encouraging the use of domestics in the dress of the people were organized in many of the States. The revival at the end of the century of the same patriotic interest in the preservation and development of domestic industries and the defence of our working people against injurious foreign competition is an incident worthy of attention. It is not a departure but a return that we have witnessed. The protective policy had then its opponents. The argument was made, as now, that its benefits inured to particular classes or sections.

If the question became in any sense or at any time sectional, it was only because slavery existed in some of the States. But for this there was no reason why the cotton-producing States should not have led or walked abreast with the New England States in the production of cotton fabrics. There was this reason only why the States that divide with Pennsylvania the mineral treasures of the great southeastern and central mountain ranges should have been so tardy in bringing to the smelting-furnace and to the mill the coal and iron from their near opposing hill-sides. Mill-fires were lighted at the funeral pile of slavery. The emancipation proclamation was heard in the depths of the earth as well as in the sky; men were made free, and material things became our better servants.

The sectional element has happily been eliminated from tariff discussion. We have no longer States that are necessarily only planting States. None are excluded from achieving that diversification of pursuits among the people which brings wealth and contentment. The cotton plantation will not be less valuable when the product is spun in the country town by operatives whose necessities call for diversified crops and create a home demand for garden and agricultural products. Every new mine, furnace, and factory is an extension of the productive capacity of the State more real and valuable than added territory.

Shall the prejudices and paralysis of slavery continue to hang upon the skirts of progress? How long will those who rejoice that slavery no longer exists cherish or tolerate the incapacities it put upon their communities? I look hopefully to the continuance of our protective system and to the consequent development of manufacturing and mining enterprises in the States hitherto wholly given to agriculture as a potent influence in the perfect unification of our people. The men who have invested their capital in these enterprises, the farmers who have felt the benefit of their neighborhood, and the men who work in shop or field will not fail to find and to defend a community of interest.

Is it not quite possible that the farmers and promoters of the great mining and manufacturing enterprises which have recently been established in the South may yet find that the free ballot of the workingman, without distinction of race, is needed for their defence as well as for his own? I do not doubt that if those men in the South who now accept the tariff views of Clay and the constitutional expositions of Webster would courageously avow and defend their real convictions they would not find it difficult, by friendly instruction and co-operation, to make the black man their efficient and safe ally, not only in establishing correct principles in our national administration, but in preserving for their local communities the benefits of social order and economical and honest government. At least until the good

offices of kindness and education have been fairly tried the contrary conclusion cannot be plausibly urged.

I have altogether rejected the suggestion of a special executive policy for any section of our country. It is the duty of the executive to administer and enforce in the methods and by the instrumentalities pointed out and provided by the Constitution all the laws enacted by Congress. These laws are general and their administration should be uniform and equal. As a citizen may not elect what laws he will obey, neither may the executive elect which he will enforce. The duty to obey and to execute embraces the Constitution in its entirety and the whole code of laws enacted under it. The evil example of permitting individuals, corporations, or communities to nullify the laws because they cross some selfish or local interest or prejudices is full of danger, not only to the nation at large, but much more to those who use this pernicious expedient to escape their just obligations or to obtain an unjust advantage over others. They will presently themselves be compelled to appeal to the law for protection, and those who would use the law as a defence must not deny that use of it to others.

If our great corporations would more scrupulously observe their legal limitations and duties, they would have less cause to complain of the unlawful limitations of their rights or of violent interference with their operations. The community that by concert, open or secret, among its citizens denies to a portion of its members their plain rights under the law has severed the only safe bond of social order and prosperity. The evil works from a bad centre both ways. It demoralizes those who practise it and destroys the faith of those who suffer by it in the efficiency of the law as a safe protector. The man in whose breast that faith has been darkened is naturally the subject of dangerous and uncanny suggestions. Those who use unlawful methods, if moved by no higher motive than the selfishness that prompted them, may well stop and inquire what is to be the end of this.

An unlawful expedient cannot become a permanent condition of government. If the educated and influential classes in a community either practise or connive at the systematic violation of laws that seem to them to cross their convenience, what can they expect when the lesson that convenience or a supposed class interest is a sufficient cause for lawlessness has been well learned by the ignorant classes? A community where law is the rule of conduct and where courts, not mobs, execute its penalties is the only attractive field for business investments and honest labor.

Our naturalization laws should be so amended as to make the inquiry into the character and good disposition of persons applying for citizenship more careful and searching. Our existing laws have been in their administration an unimpressive and often an unintelligible form. We accept the man as a citizen without any knowledge of his fitness, and he assumes the duties of citizenship without any knowledge as to what they are. The privileges of American citizenship are so great and its duties so grave that we may well insist upon a good knowledge of every person applying for citizenship and a good knowledge by him of our institutions. We should not cease to be hospitable to immigration, but we should cease to be careless as to the character of it. There are men of all races, even the best, whose coming is necessarily a burden upon our public revenues or a threat to social order. These should be identified and excluded.

We have happily maintained a policy of avoiding all interference with European affairs. We have been only interested spectators of their contentions in diplomacy and in war, ready to use our friendly offices to promote peace, but never obtruding our advice and never attempting unfairly to coin the distresses of other powers into commercial advantage to ourselves. We have a just right to expect that our European policy will be the American policy of European courts.

It is so manifestly incompatible with those precautions for our peace and safety which all the great powers habitually observe and enforce in matters affecting them that a shorter water-way between our Eastern and Western seaboards should be dominated by any European government that we may confidently expect that such a purpose will not be entertained by any friendly power.

We shall in the future, as in the past, use every endeavor to maintain and enlarge our friendly relations with all the great powers, but they will not expect us to look kindly upon any project that would leave us subject to the dangers of a hostile observation or environment. We have not sought to dominate or to absorb any of our weaker neighbors, but rather to aid and encourage them to establish free and stable governments, resting upon the consent of their own people. We have a clear right to expect, therefore, that no European government will seek to establish colonial dependencies upon the territory of these independent American states. That which a sense of justice restrains us from seeking they may be reasonably expected willingly to forego.

It must not be assumed, however, that our interests are so exclusively American that our entire inattention to any events that may transpire elsewhere can be taken for granted. Our citizens domiciled for purposes of trade in all countries and in many of the islands of the sea demand and will have our adequate care in their personal and commercial rights.

The necessities of our navy require convenient coaling-stations and dock and harbor privileges. These and other trading privileges we will feel free to obtain only by means that do not in any degree partake of coercion, however feeble the government from which we ask such concessions. But having fairly obtained them by methods and for purposes entirely consistent with the most friendly disposition towards all other powers, our consent will be necessary to any modification or impairment of the concession.

We shall neither fail to respect the flag of any friendly nation or the just rights of its citizens, nor to exact the like treatment for our own. Calmness, justice, and consideration should characterize our diplomacy. The offices of an intelligent diplomacy or of friendly arbitration in proper cases should be adequate to the peaceful adjustment of all international difficulties. By such methods we will make our contribution to the world's peace, which no nation values more highly, and avoid the opprobrium which must fall upon the nation that ruthlessly breaks it.

The duty devolved by law upon the President to nominate and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to appoint all public officers whose appointment is not otherwise provided for in the Constitution or by act of Congress has become very burdensome, and its wise and efficient discharge full of difficulty. The civil list is so large that a personal knowledge of any large number of the applicants is impossible. The President must rely upon the representations of others, and these are often made inconsiderately and without any just sense of responsibility. I have a right, I think, to insist that those who volunteer or are invited to give advice as to appointments shall exercise consideration and fidelity. A high sense of duty and an ambition to improve the service should characterize all public officers.

There are many ways in which the convenience and comfort of those who have business with our public officers may be promoted by a thoughtful and obliging officer, and I shall expect those whom I may appoint to justify their selection by a conspicuous efficiency in the discharge of their duties. Honorable party service will certainly not be esteemed by me a disqualification for public office, but it will in no case be allowed to serve as a shield of official negligence, incompetency, or delinquency. It is entirely creditable to seek public office by proper methods and with proper motives, and all applicants will be treated with consideration; but I shall need, and the heads of departments will need, time for inquiry and deliberation. Persistent importunity will not, therefore, be the best support of an application for office. Heads of departments, bureaus, and all other public officers having any duty connected therewith will be expected to enforce the civil-service law fully and without evasion.

Beyond this obvious duty I hope to do something more to advance the reform of the civil service. The ideal, or even my own ideal, I shall probably not attain. Retrospect will be a safer basis of judgment than promises. We shall not, however, I am sure, be able to put our civil service upon a non-partisan

basis until we have secured an incumbency that fair-minded men of the opposition will approve for impartiality and integrity. As the number of such in the civil list is increased removals from office will diminish.

While a treasury surplus is not the greatest evil, it is a serious evil. Our revenue should be ample to meet the ordinary annual demands upon our treasury, with a sufficient margin for those extraordinary but scarcely less imperative demands which arise now and then. Expenditure should always be made with economy and only upon public necessity. Wastefulness, profligacy, or favoritism in public expenditures is criminal. But there is nothing in the condition of our country or of our people to suggest that anything presently necessary to the public prosperity, security, or honor should be unduly postponed.

It will be the duty of Congress wisely to forecast and estimate these extraordinary demands, and, having added them to our ordinary expenditures, to so adjust our revenue laws that no considerable annual surplus will remain. We will fortunately be able to apply to the redemption of the public debt any small and unforeseen excess of revenue. This is better than to reduce our income below our necessary expenditures, with the resulting choice between another change of our revenue laws and an increase of the public debt. It is quite possible, I am sure, to effect the necessary reduction in our revenues without breaking down our protective tariff or seriously injuring any domestic industry.

The construction of a sufficient number of modern war-ships and of their necessary armament should progress as rapidly as is consistent with care and perfection in plans and workmanship. The spirit, courage, and skill of our naval officers and seamen have many times in our history given to weak ships and inefficient guns a rating greatly beyond that of the naval list. That they will again do so upon occasion I do not doubt; but they ought not, by premeditation or neglect, to be left to the risks and exigencies of an unequal combat. We should encourage the establishment of American steamship lines. The exchanges of commerce demand stated, reliable, and rapid means of communication, and until these are provided the development of our trade with the states lying south of us is impossible.

Our pension laws should give more adequate and discriminating relief to the Union soldiers and sailors and to their widows and orphans. Such occasions as this should remind us that we owe everything to their valor and sacrifice.

It is a subject of congratulation that there is a near prospect of the admission into the Union of the Dakotas and Montana and Washington Territories. This act of justice has been unreasonably delayed in the case of some of them. The people who have settled these Territories are intelligent, enterprising, and patriotic, and the accession of these new States will add strength to the nation. It is due to the settlers in the Territories who have availed themselves of the invitations of our land laws to make homes upon the public domain that their titles should be speedily adjusted and their honest entries confirmed by patent.

It is very gratifying to observe the general interest now being manifested in the reform of our election laws. Those who have been for years calling attention to the pressing necessity of throwing about the ballot-box and about the elector further safeguards, in order that our elections might not only be free and pure, but might clearly appear to be so, will welcome the accession of any who did not so soon discover the need of reform. The national Congress has not yet taken control of elections in that case over which the Constitution gives it jurisdiction, but has accepted and adopted the election laws of the several States, provided penalties for their violation, and a method of supervision. Only the inefficiency of the State laws or an unfair partisan administration of them could suggest a departure from this policy.

It was clearly, however, in the contemplation of the framers of the Constitution that such an exigency might arise, and provision was wisely made for it. The freedom of the ballot is a condition of our national life, and no power vested in Congress or in the executive to secure or perpetuate it should remain unused upon occasion. The people of all the con-

gressional districts have an equal interest that the election in each shall truly express the views and wishes of a majority of the qualified electors residing within it. The results of such elections are not local, and the insistence of electors residing in other districts that they shall be pure and free does not savor at all of impertinence.

If in any of the States the public security is thought to be threatened by ignorance among the electors, the obvious remedy is education. The sympathy and help of our people will not be withheld from any community struggling with special embarrassments or difficulties connected with the suffrage if the remedies proposed proceed upon lawful lines and are promoted by just and honorable methods. How shall those who practise election frauds recover that respect for the sanctity of the ballot which is the first condition and obligation of good citizenship? The man who has come to regard the ballot-box as a juggler's hat has renounced his allegiance.

Let us exalt patriotism and moderate our party contentions. Let those who would die for the flag on the field of battle give a better proof of their patriotism and a higher glory to their country by promoting fraternity and justice. A party success that is achieved by unfair methods or by practices that partake of revolution is hurtful and evanescent even from a party stand-point. We should hold our differing opinions in mutual respect, and, having submitted them to the arbitrament of the ballot, should accept an adverse judgment with the same respect that we would have demanded of our opponents if the decision had been in our favor.

No other people have a government more worthy of their respect and love or a land so magnificent in extent, so pleasant to look upon, and so full of generous suggestion to enterprise and labor. God has placed upon our head a diadem and has laid at our feet power and wealth beyond definition or calculation. But we must not forget that we take these gifts upon the condition that justice and mercy shall hold the reins of power and that the upward avenues of hope shall be free to all.

I do not mistrust the future. Dangers have been in frequent ambush along our path, but we have uncovered and vanquished them all. Passion has swept some of our communities, but only to give us a new demonstration that the great body of our people are stable, patriotic, and law-abiding. No political party can long pursue advantage at the expense of public honor or by rude and indecent methods without protest and fatal disaffection in its own body. The peaceful agencies of commerce are more fully revealing the necessary unity of all our communities, and the increasing intercourse of our people is promoting mutual respect. We shall find unalloyed pleasure in the revelation which our next census will make of the swift development of the great resources of some of the States. Each State will bring its generous contribution to the great aggregate of the nation's increase. And when the harvests from the fields, the cattle from the hills, and the ores of the earth shall have been weighed, counted, and valued, we will turn from them all to crown with the highest honor the State that has most promoted education, virtue, justice, and patriotism among its people.

Washington Centennial Address.—On April 30, 1889, President Harrison delivered the following address at the centennial observance of the inauguration of President Washington, in New York City:

Mr. President and Fellow-citizens,—I should be unjust to myself, and, what is more serious, I should be unjust to you, if I did not at this first and last opportunity express to you the deep sense of obligation and thankfulness which I feel for those many personal and official courtesies which have been extended to me since I came to take part in this great celebration. The official representatives of the State of New York, and of this great city, have attended me with the most gracious kindness, omitting no office or attention that could make my stay among you pleasant and gratifying. From you and the hundreds of thousands who have thronged the streets of this great commercial metropolis, I have received the most cordial expressions of good-will. I would not, however, have you understand that these loud acclaims have been in any sense appropriated as a personal tribute to myself. I have realized that there was that

in this occasion and in all these incidents, which have made it so profoundly impressive to my mind, which was above and greater than any living man. I have realized that that tribute of cordial interest which you have manifested was rendered rather to that great office which by the favor of a great people I now exercise, than to me.

The occasion and all its incidents will be memorable, not only in the history of your State, but in the history of our country. New York did not succeed in retaining the seat of national government here, though she made liberal provision for the assembling of the first Congress, in the expectation that the Congress might find its permanent home here; but though you lost that which you coveted, I think the representatives here of all the States will agree that it was fortunate that the first inauguration of Washington took place in the State and in the city of New York. For where in our country could the centennial of the event have been so worthily celebrated as here? What seaboard offered so magnificent a bay upon which to display our naval and merchant marine? What city offers thoroughfares so magnificent, or a population so great and so generous as New York has poured out to-day to celebrate that event?

I have received at the hands of the committee who have been charged with the details—onerous, exacting, and too often unthankful—of this demonstration, an evidence of their confidence in my physical endurance which is flattering to me. But I must also acknowledge still one other obligation. The committee having in charge the exercises of this evening have also given me an evidence of their confidence, which has been accompanied with some embarrassment. As I have noted the progress of this banquet, it has seemed to me that each of those distinguished speakers has been made acquainted with his theme before he took his seat at the banquet-table, and that I alone was left to make acquaintance with my theme when I sat down at the table. I prefer to substitute for the official title which is upon the programme that familiar fireside expression, "Our Country."

I congratulate you to-day as one of the instructive and interesting features of this occasion that these great thoroughfares, dedicated to trade, have closed their doors, and have covered the insignia of commerce with the stars and stripes; that your great exchanges have closed; that in the very heart of Wall Street the flag has been carried, and upon the old historic spot men who give their time and energies to trade have given these days to their country, to thoughts of her glory, and to aspirations of her honor and prosperity.

I have great pleasure in believing that love of country has been intensified in many hearts here, not only of you who might be called, and some of whom have been called, to give the witness of your love of the flag upon battle-fields both of sea and land, but in these homes, and among these fair women who look down upon us to-night, and in the hearts of these little children who mingled their piping cries with the hoarser acclaims of men as they moved along your streets to-day, and I believe that patriotism has been blown into a higher and holier flame in many hearts. These banners with which you have covered your walls, these patriotic inscriptions, must come down; and the ways of commerce and of trade be resumed again here; but may I not ask you to carry these banners that now hang on the walls into your homes, into the public schools of your city, and into all your great institutions where children are gathered, and to drape them there, that the eyes of the young and of the old may look upon that flag as one of the familiar adornments of every American home?

Have you not learned that not stocks, or bonds, or stately houses, or lands, or products of mill or field is our country? It is a spiritual thought that is in our minds. It is the flag and what it stands for, it is its glorious history, it is the fireside and the home, it is the high thoughts that are in the heart, born of the inspiration which comes of the story—of the fathers, the martyrs to liberty—it is the graveyard into which our grateful country has gathered the unconscious dust of those who died. Here in these things is that thing we love and call our country—rather than anything that can be touched or handled.

Let me hold the thought: That we owe a duty to our country in peace as well as in war. Perhaps never in the history of our nation have we been so well equipped for war upon the land as now, and yet we have never seen a time in our history when our people were more smitten with a love of peace.

To elevate the morals of our people; to hold up the law as that sacred thing which, like the ark of God of old, may not be touched by irreverent hands; to frown upon every attempt to dethrone its supremacy; to unite our people in all that makes the home pure and honorable, as well as to give our energies in the direction of our material advancement—this service we may render, and out of this great demonstration do we not feel like reconsecrating ourselves to the love and to the service of our country?

Harrison, CARTER HENRY; born in Kentucky, Feb. 15, 1825; elected to Congress from Illinois in 1874; mayor of Chicago for five terms. He was assassinated in that city Oct. 28, 1893.

Harrison, ROBERT HANSON, jurist; born in Maryland in 1745; secretary to General Washington, 1775–81; chief-justice of Maryland, 1781; justice of the United States Supreme Court, 1789–90. He died in Charles county, Md., April 2, 1790.

HARRISON, WILLIAM HENRY

Harrison, WILLIAM HENRY, ninth President of the United States, in 1841; Whig; born in Berkeley, Charles City co., Va., Feb. 9, 1773; was a son of Benjamin Harrison, governor of Virginia, and was educated at Hampden-Sidney College. He began preparations for the profession of medicine, but soon abandoned it for a military life. In 1791 Washington commissioned him an ensign. Made a lieutenant in 1792, he afterwards became an efficient aide to General Wayne, and with him went through the campaign in Ohio, in 1794. After the treaty of Greenville (1794), he was placed in command of Fort Washington, on the site of Cincinnati, and was promoted to captain. While on duty at North Bend, he was married to Anna, daughter of Judge Symmes, an extensive land-owner there. In 1797 he was appointed secretary of the Northwest Territory, and left the army. In 1799 he became a delegate to Congress, and was made the first governor of Indian Territory in 1801. That office he held until 1813, and, as superintendent of Indian affairs, performed efficient service. In the course of his administration, he made thirteen important treaties with different tribes. Harrison, at the head of troops, gained a victory over the Indians, Nov. 7, 1811, at TIPPECANOE (*q. v.*). He was in command of the Army of the Northwest in the second war for independence, in which post he was distinguished for prudence and bravery. Resigning his commission in 1814, he was employed in making treaties with the Indians for cessions of lands. From 1816 to 1819 he was member of Congress from Ohio, and from 1825 to 1828 was in the United States Senate, having previously served a term in the Ohio Senate. In 1828 President Adams sent him as minister to Colombia, South America, and on his return he made his residence in North Bend, O. In 1840 he was elected President of the United States, receiving 234 votes out of 294 (see CABINET, PRESIDENT'S). Just one month after he entered upon his duties, April 4, 1841, he died in the national capital. President Harrison's remains lie in a vault upon an eminence overlooking the Ohio River, at North Bend.

While governor of the Indiana Territory, General Harrison, suspicious of the movements of TECUMSEH (*q. v.*), and also of the Prophet (see ELKSWATAWA), invited them to an interview at Vincennes. Though requested not to bring more than thirty followers, Tecumseh appeared with about 400 warriors. The council was held in a field just outside the village. The governor, seated on a chair, was surrounded by several hundred of the unarmed people, and attended by judges of the territory, several officers of the army, and by Winnemack, a friendly Pottawattomie chief, who had on this as on other occasions given Harrison

notice of Tecumseh's hostile designs. A sergeant and twelve men from the fort were stationed under some trees on the border of the field, and the Indians, who sat in a semicircle on the ground, had left their rifles at their camp in the woods, but brought their tomahawks with them. Tecumseh, in an opening speech, declared the intention of the tribes, by a combination, not to countenance any more cessions of Indian lands, except by general consent. He contended that the Indians were one people, and the lands, belonging to the whole in common, could not be alienated by a part. This position was combated by Harrison, who asserted that the lands sold had been so disposed of by the occupants, and that the Shawnees had no business to interfere. When these words were interpreted, Tecumseh, with violent gesticulations, declared the governor's statements were false, and that he and the United States had cheated and imposed upon the Indians. As he proceeded with increased violence, his warriors sprang to their feet, and began to brandish their tomahawks. Harrison started from his chair, and drew his sword, as did the officers around him. Winnemack cocked his loaded pistol, and the unarmed citizens caught up whatever missiles were at hand. The guard of soldiers came running up, and were about to fire upon the Indians, but were checked by the governor, who asked the interpreter what was the matter. On being informed, he denounced Tecumseh as a bad man; that, as he had come under promise of protection, he might depart in safety, but he must instantly leave the neighborhood. The council broke up, and Tecumseh retired to his camp. On the following morning, to allay all suspicions, he expressed regret for his conduct, and asked for and obtained another interview, at which he disclaimed all hostile intentions against the white people, but gave the governor to understand that he should adhere to his determination to oppose all cessions of land thereafter. Chiefs of other tribes, who were with him, declared their intention to adhere to the new confederacy. Anxious to ascertain the real intentions of the Shawnee chief, Harrison visited his camp, when Tecumseh told him that he should make war on the Americans with reluctance, and promised, if the recent cessions were given up, and the principle adopted by the United States government of taking no more land from the Indians without the consent of all the tribes, he would be their friend and ally, for he knew the pretended friendship of the British was only selfishness. Yet, if the Americans persevered in their methods of getting the land of the Indians, he should be compelled to join that people in war against the people of the United States.

HARRISON'S GRAVE.

Before the declaration of war against England in June, 1812, Kentucky and Ohio made preparations for such an event. Early in May Governor Scott, of Kentucky, in obedience to instructions from the War Department, had organized ten regiments of volunteers, making an effective force of 5,500 men; and Governor

Meigs, of Ohio, promptly responded to the call for troops to accompany Hull to Detroit. General Harrison, then governor of Indiana Territory, had already caused block-houses and stockades to be erected in various parts of his territory as defences against the Indians, and the militiamen were placed in a state of preparation for immediate action when called upon. Having been authorized by the national government to call upon Kentucky for any portion of its contingent of troops, he repaired to Frankfort, where he was honored with a public reception. He expressed his views freely concerning the imminent peril in which General Hull was placed, and suggested a series of military operations in the Northwest. The fall of Detroit and the massacre at Chicago caused the greatest excitement in Kentucky, and volunteers were offered by thousands. It was the general desire of the volunteers and militia of the West that Harrison should be their leader against the British and Indians. Governor Scott was requested by some of the leading men in Kentucky to appoint him commander-in-chief of the forces of that State, and he was commissioned Aug. 25, 1812. A corps of mounted volunteers was raised, and Maj. Richard M. Johnson became their leader. While Harrison was on his way northward from Cincinnati with his troops he received the commission of brigadier-general from the President, with instructions to take command of all the forces in the territories of Indiana and Illinois, and to co-operate with General Hull and with Governor Howard, of Missouri. These instructions were issued before the disaster to Hull was known. He hesitated to accept the commission because of the delicate relations in which it might place him with General Winchester, commander of the Army of the Northwest. He pressed forward to Piqua, and sent a detachment to relieve Fort Wayne (*q. v.*). At Piqua Harrison was joined by mounted volunteers under Johnson, when the army in the wilderness of Ohio numbered 2,200 men. The Indian spies reported: "Kaintuckee is crossing as numerous as the trees." It was determined by a council of officers to strike the neighboring Indians with terror by a display of power. Harrison divided the army. One detachment of mounted dragoons, under Colonel Simrall, laid waste (Sept. 19, 1812) the Little Turtle's town on the Eel River, excepting the buildings erected by the United States for the then deceased chief on account of his friendship since the treaty of Greenville in 1794. Another detachment, under Col. S. Wells, was sent, Sept. 16, to destroy a Pottawattomie town on the Elkhart River, 60 miles distant; while Colonel Payne, with another detachment, laid in ashes a Miami village in the forks of the Wabash, and several other towns lower down that stream, with their corn-fields and gardens.

General Winchester arrived at Harrison's camp on Sept. 18, when the latter resigned his command to that superior in rank. The troops almost mutinied, for they revered Harrison. The latter returned to St. Mary to collect the mounted men from Kentucky, to march on towards Detroit. At Piqua he received a letter from the War Department assigning him to the command of the Northwestern army, which, it was stated, would consist, "in addition to the regular troops and rangers in that quarter, of the volunteers and militia of Kentucky and Ohio, and 3,000 from Virginia and Pennsylvania," making his whole force 10,000 men. He was instructed to provide for the defence of the frontiers, and "then to retake Detroit, with a view to the conquest of Canada." He was invested with very ample powers. "You will command such means as may be practicable," said the despatch from the War Department. "Exercise your own discretion, and act in all cases according to your own judgment." His soldiers rejoiced, and were ready and eager to follow wherever he might lead. He arranged with care an autumn campaign, which contemplated the seizure of the important position at the foot of the rapids of the Maumee, or Miami, and, possibly, the capture of Malden and Detroit, making his base of military operations the foot of the rapids (see Meigs, Fort). There were nearly 3,000 troops at St. Mary on Oct. 1. Fort Defiance, at the junction of the Maumee and Auglaize, was made a post of deposit for provisions, and a corps of observation was placed at Sandusky. The mounted Kentuckians were formed into a regiment, and Major Johnson was ap-

pointed its colonel; and these, with Ohio mounted men under Colonel Findlay, formed a brigade commanded by Gen. E. W. Tupper, of Ohio, who had raised about 1,000 men for the service. Harrison ordered the construction of a new fort near old Fort Defiance; but his operations were soon afterwards disturbed by antagonisms between Tupper and Winchester. The latter dismissed Tupper from his command and gave it to Allen, of the regulars, when the Ohio troops absolutely refused to serve under any but their old commander. It was really a conflict between regulars and volunteers, and the intended expedition against Detroit was postponed. Harrison was much annoyed, but prosecuted his plans with extraordinary vigor for a winter campaign. General Tupper had entered upon an independent expedition with 650 mounted volunteers, and endeavored to seize the post at the foot of the Maumee Rapids; but, after a bold attempt, he was repulsed by the British and Indians there. Some further attacks upon the Indians succeeded, and smoothed the way for the final recovery of Michigan; but as winter came on the suffering of the troops was severe, especially of those under Winchester. The whole effective force then (December, 1812) in the Northwest did not exceed 6,300, and a small artillery and cavalry force. Yet Harrison determined to press on to the rapids and beyond if possible. On Dec. 30 Winchester moved towards the rapids. Harrison, having heard of the presence of Tecumseh on the Wabash with a large force of Indians, recommended Winchester to abandon the movement; but the latter did not heed the advice. He reached the rapids, and was summoned to the River Raisin to defend the inhabitants at Frenchtown and its vicinity. Winchester pressed on, and there occurred a dreadful massacre of troops and citizens on Jan. 22, 1813 (see FRENCHTOWN). This event ended the campaign. With 1,700 men General Harrison took post on the high right bank of the Maumee, at the foot of the rapids, and there established a fortified camp. Nothing of importance occurred during the winter. Troops were concentrated there, and in March (1813) Harrison sent a small force, under Captain Langham, to destroy the British vessels frozen in the Detroit River near Amherstburg (Fort Malden). The ice in the vicinity had broken up, and the expedition was fruitless. The attack on Fort Meigs by the British and Indians followed in May. The attack on Fort Stephenson (see STEPHENSON, FORT) followed, and the summer of 1813 was passed in completing arrangements for the invasion of Canada.

SITE OF FORT DEFIANCE, IN 1860.

The veteran Isaac Shelby, then governor of Kentucky, joined Harrison at Camp Seneca, with about 4,000 mounted volunteers from his State. He had called for a certain number, and twice as many came as he asked for. They were gathered at Newport and Cincinnati. With Maj. John Adair and John J. Crittenden as his aides, Governor Shelby pressed forward towards Lake Erie. Col. Richard M.

Johnson's troop was among Shelby's men. Harrison was rejoiced to see them come. Perry had secured the coveted control of Lake Erie, and thus reinforced and encouraged, Harrison moved immediately, and on Sept. 15–16, 1813, the whole army of the Northwest—excepting some troops holding Fort Meigs and minor posts—were on the borders of the lake, at a point now called Port Clinton. General McArthur, who had succeeded Clay in command of Fort Meigs, was ordered to embark artillery, provisions, and stores from that place, and on the 20th the embarkation of the army upon Perry's vessels began. The weather was delightful, and the whole army were in high spirits. They rendezvoused first at Put-in-Bay Island, on the 24th, and the next day were upon the Middle Sister Island. The Kentuckians had left their horses on the peninsula between Sandusky Bay and Portage River, and were organized as infantry. In sixteen armed vessels and about 100 boats the armament started from the Detroit River. On the way a stirring address by General Harrison was read to the troops, which concluded as follows: "The general entreats his brave troops to remember that they are sons of sires whose fame is immortal; that they are to fight for the rights of their insulted country, while their opponents combat for the unjust pretensions of a master. Kentuckians, remember the River Raisin! but remember it only while victory is suspended. The revenge of a soldier cannot be gratified upon a fallen enemy." Expecting to be attacked at their landing-place, the troops were debarked, Sept. 28, in perfect battle order, on Hartley's Point, nearly 4 miles below Amherstburg. No enemy was there. Proctor, who was in command at Fort Malden, taking counsel of prudence and fear, and in opposition to the earnest entreaties and indignant protests of his officers and Tecumseh, had fled northward with his army and all he could take with him, leaving Fort Malden, the navy buildings, and the storehouses smoking ruins. As the Americans approached the town, they met, instead of brave Britons and painted savages, a troop of modest women who came to implore mercy and protection. Their fears were removed by the kind-hearted leaders, and the Americans entered Amherstburg with the bands playing *Yankee Doodle*. The loyal inhabitants had fled with the army. The flotilla arrived at Detroit on the 29th, and the same day Colonel Johnson arrived with his troop of cavalry. Harrison had encamped at Sandwich, and all started in pursuit. The enemy was overtaken at the Moravian Towns, on the Thames, and defeated in battle (see THAMES, BATTLE OF THE). Detroit and all Michigan were recovered. All that Hull had lost was regained. Col. Lewis Cass was left at Detroit, with a strong garrison, as military governor of the territory. Soon after his victory General Harrison resigned his commission.

Inaugural Address.—On March 4, 1841, the President for a single month only delivered the following address:

Called from a retirement which I had supposed was to continue for the residue of my life to fill the chief executive office of this great and free nation, I appear before you, fellow-citizens, to take the oath which the Constitution prescribes as a necessary qualification for the performance of its duties; and in obedience to a custom coeval with our government and what I believe to be your expectations, I proceed to present to you a summary of the principles which will govern me in the discharge of the duties which I shall be called upon to perform.

It was the remark of a Roman consul in an early period of that celebrated republic that a most striking contrast was observable in the conduct of candidates for offices of power and trust before and after obtaining them, they seldom carrying out in the latter case the pledges and promises made in the former. However much the world may have improved in many respects in the lapse of upward of 2,000 years since the remark was made by the virtuous and indignant Roman, I fear that a strict examination of the annals of some of the modern elective governments would develop similar instances of violated confidence.

Although the fiat of the people has gone forth proclaiming me the chief magistrate of this glorious Union, nothing upon their part remaining to be done, it may be thought that a motive

may exist to keep up the delusion under which they may be supposed to have acted in relation to my principles and opinions; and perhaps there may be some in this assembly who have come here either prepared to condemn those I shall now deliver, or, approving them, to doubt the sincerity with which they are now uttered. But the lapse of a few months will confirm or dispel their fears. The outline of principles to govern measures to be adopted by an administration not yet begun will soon be exchanged for immutable history, and I shall stand either exonerated by my countrymen, or classed with the mass of those who promised that they might deceive and flattered with the intention to betray. However strong may be my present purpose to realize the expectations of a magnanimous and confiding people, I too well understand the dangerous temptations to which I shall be exposed from the magnitude of the power which it has been the pleasure of the people to commit to my hands not to place my chief confidence upon the aid of that Almighty Power which has hitherto protected me and enabled me to bring to favorable issues other important but still greatly inferior trusts heretofore confided to me by my country.

The broad foundation upon which our Constitution rests being the people—a breath of theirs having made, as a breath can unmake, change, or modify it—it can be assigned to none of the great divisions of government but to that of democracy. If such is its theory, those who are called upon to administer it must recognize as its leading principle the duty of shaping their measures so as to produce the greatest good to the greatest number. But with these broad admissions, if we would compare the sovereignty acknowledged to exist in the mass of our people with the power claimed by other sovereignties, even by those which have been considered most purely democratic, we shall find a most essential difference. All others lay claim to power limited only by their own will. The majority of our citizens, on the contrary, possess a sovereignty with an amount of power precisely equal to that which has been granted to them by the parties to the national compact, and nothing beyond. We admit of no government by divine right, believing that so far as power is concerned the beneficent Creator has made no distinction among men; that all are upon an equality; and that the only legitimate right to govern is an express grant of power from the governed. The Constitution of the United States is the instrument containing this grant of power to the several departments composing the government. On an examination of that instrument it will be found to contain declarations of power granted and of power withheld. The latter is also susceptible of division into power which the majority had the right to grant, but which they did not think proper to intrust to their agents, and that which they could not have granted, not being possessed by themselves. In other words, there are certain rights possessed by each individual American citizen which in his compact with the others he has never surrendered. Some of them, indeed, he is unable to surrender, being, in the language of our system, unalienable. The boasted privilege of a Roman citizen was to him a shield only against a petty provincial ruler, while the proud democrat of Athens would console himself under a sentence of death for a supposed violation of the national faith — which no one understood and which at times was the subject of the mockery of all—or the banishment from his home, his family, and his country, with or without an alleged cause, that it was the act not of a single tyrant or hated aristocracy, but of his assembled countrymen. Far different is the power of our sovereignty. It can interfere with no one's faith, prescribe forms of worship for no one's observance, inflict no punishment but after well-ascertained guilt, the result of investigation under rules prescribed by the Constitution itself. These precious privileges, and those scarcely less important of giving expression to his thoughts and opinions, either by writing or speaking, unrestrained but by the liability for injury to others, and that of a full participation in all the advantages which flow from the government, the acknowledged property of all, the American citizen derives from no charter granted by his fellow-man. He claims them because he is himself a man, fashioned by the

same Almighty hand as the rest of his species, and entitled to a full share of the blessings with which He has endowed them. Notwithstanding the limited sovereignty possessed by the people of the United States and the restricted grant of power to the govérnment which they have adopted, enough has been given to accomplish all the objects for which it was created. It has been found powerful in war, and hitherto justice has been administered, an intimate union effected, domestic tranquillity preserved, and personal liberty secured to the citizen. As was to be expected, however, from the defect of language and the necessarily sententious manner in which the Constitution is written, disputes have arisen as to the amount of power which it has actually granted or was intended to grant.

This is more particularly the case in relation to that part of the instrument which treats of the legislative branch, and not only as regards the exercise of powers claimed under a general clause giving that body the authority to pass all laws necessary to carry into effect the specified powers, but in relation to the latter also. It is, however, consolatory to reflect that *most* of the instances of alleged departure from the letter or spirit of the Constitution have ultimately received the sanction of a majority of the people. And the fact that many of our statesmen most distinguished for talent and patriotism have been at one time or other of their political career on both sides of each of the most warmly disputed questions forces upon us the inference that the errors, if errors there were, are attributable to the intrinsic difficulty in many instances of ascertaining the intentions of the framers of the Constitution rather than the influence of any sinister or unpatriotic motive. But the great danger to our institutions does not appear to me to be in a usurpation by the government of power not granted by the people, but by the accumulation in one of the departments of that which was assigned to others. Limited as are the powers which have been granted, still enough have been granted to constitute a despotism if concentrated in one of the departments. This danger is greatly heightened, as it has been always observable that men are less jealous of encroachments of one department upon another than upon their own reserved rights. When the Constitution of the United States first came from the hands of the convention which formed it, many of the sternest republicans of the day were alarmed at the extent of the power which had been granted to the federal government, and more particularly of that portion which had been assigned to the executive branch. There were in it features which appeared not to be in harmony with their ideas of a simple representative democracy or republic, and knowing the tendency of power to increase itself, particularly when exercised by a single individual, predictions were made that at no very remote period the government would terminate in virtual monarchy. It would not become me to say that the fears of these patriots have been already realized; but as I sincerely believe that the tendency of measures and of men's opinions for some years past has been in that direction, it is, I conceive, strictly proper that I should take this occasion to repeat the assurances I have heretofore given of my determination to arrest the progress of that tendency if it really exists, and restore the government to its pristine health and vigor, as far as this can be effected by any legitimate exercise of the power placed in my hands.

I proceed to state in as summary a manner as I can my opinion of the sources of the evils which have been so extensively complained of and the correctives which may be applied. Some of the former are unquestionably to be found in the defects of the Constitution; others, in my judgment, are attributable to a misconstruction of some of its provisions. Of the former is the eligibility of the same individual to a second term of the Presidency. The sagacious mind of Mr. Jefferson early saw and lamented this error, and attempts have been made, hitherto without success, to apply the amendatory power of the States to its correction. As, however, one mode of correction is in the power of every President, and consequently in mine, it would be useless, and perhaps invidious, to enumerate the evils of which, in the opinion of many of our fellow-citizens, this error of the sages who framed the Constitution may have been the

source and the bitter fruits which we are still to gather from it if it continues to disfigure our system. It may be observed, however, as a general remark, that republics can commit no greater error than to adopt or continue any feature in their systems of government which may be calculated to create or increase the love of power in the bosoms of those to whom necessity obliges them to commit the management of their affairs, and surely nothing is more likely to produce such a state of mind than the long continuance of an office of high trust. Nothing can be more corrupting, nothing more destructive of all those noble feelings which belong to the character of a devoted republican patriot. When this corrupting passion once takes possession of the human mind, like the love of gold, it becomes insatiable. It is the never-dying worm in his bosom, grows with his growth, and strengthens with the declining years of its victim. If this is true, it is the part of wisdom for a republic to limit the service of that officer at least to whom she has intrusted the management of her foreign relations, the execution of her laws, and the command of her armies and navies, to a period so short as to prevent his forgetting that he is the accountable agent, not the principal; the servant, not the master. Until an amendment of the Constitution can be effected public opinion may secure the desired object. I give my aid to it by renewing the pledge heretofore given that under no circumstances will I consent to serve a second term.

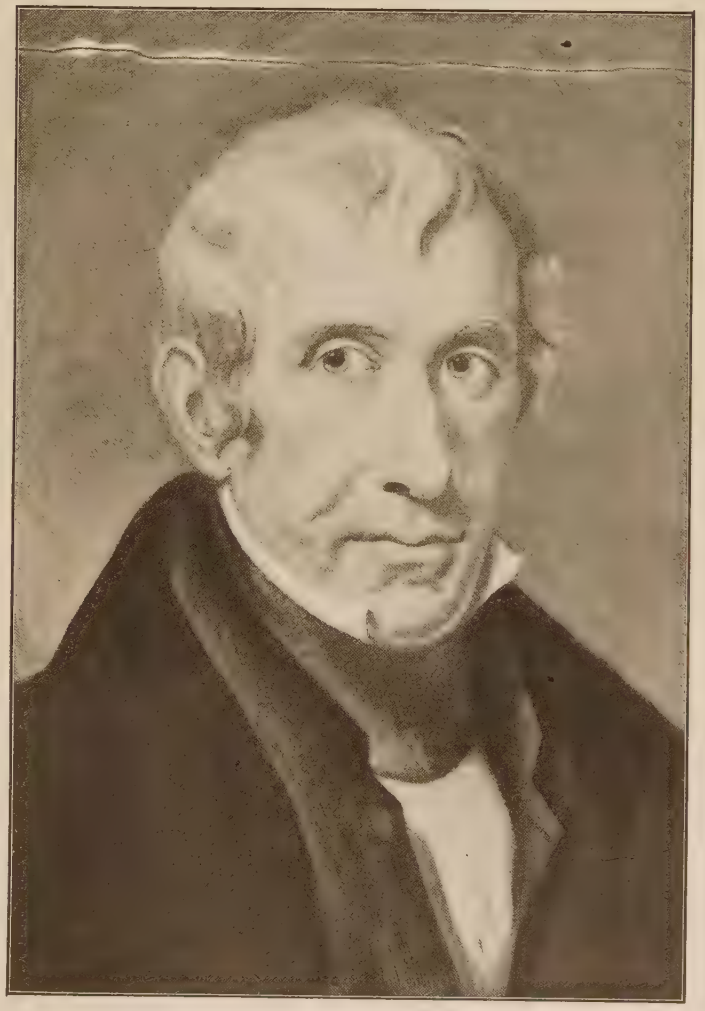
But if there is danger to public liberty from the acknowledged defects of the Constitution in the want of limit to the continuance of the executive power in the same hands, there is, I apprehend, not much less from a misconstruction of that instrument as it regards the powers actually given. I cannot conceive that by a fair construction any or either of its provisions would be found to constitute the President a part of the legislative power. It cannot be claimed from the power to recommend, since, although enjoined as a duty upon him, it is a privilege which he holds in common with every other citizen: and although there may be something more of confidence in the propriety of the measures recommended in the one case than in the other, in the obligations of ultimate decision there can be no difference. In the language of the Constitution, "all the legislative powers" which it grants "are vested in the Congress of the United States." It would be a solecism in language to say that any portion of these is not included in the whole.

It may be said, indeed, that the Constitution has given to the executive the power to annul the acts of the legislative body by refusing to them his assent. So a similar power has necessarily resulted from that instrument to the judiciary, and yet the judiciary forms no part of the legislature. There is, it is true, this difference between these grants of power: the executive can put his negative upon the acts of the legislature for other cause than that of want of conformity to the Constitution, while the judiciary can only declare void those which violate that instrument. But the decision of the judiciary is final in such a case, whereas in every instance where the veto of the executive is applied it may be overcome by a vote of two-thirds of both Houses of Congress. The negative upon the acts of the legislative by the executive authority, and that in the hands of one individual, would seem to be an incongruity in our system. Like some others of a similar character, however, it appears to be highly expedient, and if used only with the forbearance and in the spirit which was intended by its authors it may be productive of great good, and be found one of the best safeguards to the Union. At the period of the formation of the Constitution the principle does not appear to have enjoyed much favor in the State governments. It existed but in two, and in one of these there was a plural executive. If we would search for the motives which operated upon the purely patriotic and enlightened assembly which framed the Constitution for the adoption of a provision so apparently repugnant to the leading democratic principle that the majority should govern, we must reject the idea that they anticipated from it any benefit to the ordinary course of legislation. They knew too well the high degree of intelligence which existed among the people and the enlightened character of the State legislatures not to have the

fullest confidence that the two bodies elected by them would be worthy representatives of such constituents, and, of course, that they would require no aid in conceiving and maturing the measures which the circumstances of the country might require. And it is preposterous to suppose that a thought could for a moment have been entertained that the President, placed at the capital, in the centre of the country, could better understand the wants and wishes of the people than their own immediate representatives, who spend a part of every year among them, living with them, often laboring with them, and bound to them by the triple tie of interest, duty, and affection. To assist or control Congress, then, in its ordinary legislation could not, I conceive, have been the motive for conferring the veto power on the President. This argument acquires additional force from the fact of its never having been thus used by the first six Presidents—and two of them were members of the convention, one presiding over its deliberations, and the other bearing a larger share in consummating the labors of that august body than any other person. But if bills were never returned to Congress by either of the Presidents above referred to upon the ground of their being inexpedient or not as well adapted as they might be to the wants of the people, the veto was applied upon that of want of conformity to the Constitution or because errors had been committed from a too hasty enactment.

There is another ground for the adoption of the veto principle, which had probably more influence in recommending it to the convention than any other. I refer to the security which it gives to the just and equitable action of the legislature upon all parts of the Union. It could not but have occurred to the convention that in a country so extensive, embracing so great a variety of soil and climate, and consequently of products, and which from the same causes must ever exhibit a great difference in the amount of the population of its various sections, calling for a great diversity in the employments of the people, that the legislation of the majority might not always justly regard the rights and interests of the minority, and that acts of this character might be passed under an express grant by the words of the Constitution, and therefore not within the competency of the judiciary to declare void, that however enlightened and patriotic they might suppose from past experience the members of Congress might be, and however largely partaking, in a general way, of the liberal feelings of the people, it was impossible to expect that bodies so constituted should not sometimes be controlled by local interests and sectional feelings. It was proper, therefore, to provide some umpire from whose situation and mode of appointment more independence and freedom from such influences might be expected. Such a one was afforded by the executive department constituted by the Constitution. A person elected to that high office, having its constituents in every section, State, and subdivision of the Union, must consider himself bound by the most solemn sanctions to guard, protect, and defend the rights of all and of every portion, great or small, from the injustice and oppression of the rest. I consider the veto power, therefore, given by the Constitution to the executive of the United States solely as a conservative power, to be used only, first, to protect the Constitution from violation; secondly, the people from the effects of hasty legislation where their will has been probably disregarded or not well understood; and, thirdly, to prevent the effects of combinations violative of the rights of minorities. In reference to the second of these objects I may observe that I consider it the right and privilege of the people to decide disputed points of the Constitution arising from the general grant of power to Congress to carry into effect the powers expressly given; and I believe with Mr. Madison that "repeated recognitions under varied circumstances in acts of the legislative, executive, and judicial branches of the government, accompanied by indications in different modes of the concurrence of the general will of the nation," as affording to the President sufficient authority for his considering such disputed points as settled.

Upward of half a century has elapsed since the adoption of the present form of government. It would be an object more highly desirable than the gratifica-



W. H. Harrison

tion of the curiosity of speculative statesmen if its precise situation could be ascertained, a fair exhibit made of the operations of each of its departments, of the powers which they respectively claim and exercise, of the collisions which have occurred between them or between the whole government, and those of the States or either of them. We could then compare our actual condition after fifty years' trial of our system with what it was in the commencement of its operations and ascertain whether the predictions of the patriots who opposed its adoption or the confident hopes of its advocates have been best realized. The great dread of the former seems to have been that the reserved powers of the States would be absorbed by those of the federal government and a consolidated power established, leaving to the States the shadow only of that independent action for which they had so zealously contended and on the preservation of which they relied as the last hope of liberty. Without denying that the result to which they looked with so much apprehension is in the way of being realized, it is obvious that they did not clearly see the mode of its accomplishment. The general government has seized upon none of the reserved rights of the States. As far as any open warfare may have gone, the State authorities have amply maintained their rights. To a casual observer our system presents no appearance of discord between the different members which compose it. Even the addition of many new ones has produced no jarring. They move in their respective orbits in perfect harmony with the central head and with each other. But there is still an undercurrent at work by which, if not seasonably checked, the worst apprehensions of our anti-federal patriots will be realized, and not only will the State authorities be overshadowed by the great increase of power in the executive department of the general government, but the character of that government, if not its designation, be essentially and radically changed. This state of things has been in part effected by causes inherent in the Constitution and in part by the never-failing tendency of political power to increase itself. By making the President the sole distributer of all the patronage of the government the framers of the Constitution do not appear to have anticipated at how short a period it would become a formidable instrument to control the free operations of the State governments. Of trifling importance at first, it had early in Mr. Jefferson's administration become so powerful as to create great alarm in the mind of that patriot from the potent influence it might exert in controlling the freedom of the elective franchise. If such could then have been the effects of its influence, how much greater must be the danger at this time, quadrupled in amount as it certainly is, and more completely under the control of the executive will than their construction of their powers allowed or the forbearing characters of all the early Presidents permitted them to make. But it is not by the extent of its patronage alone that the executive department has become dangerous, but by the use which it appears may be made of the appointing power to bring under its control the whole revenues of the country. The Constitution has declared it to be the duty of the President to see that the laws are executed, and it makes him the commander-in-chief of the armies and navy of the United States. If the opinion of the most approved writers upon that species of mixed government which in modern Europe is termed monarchy in contradistinction to despotism is correct, there was wanting no other addition to the powers of our chief magistrate to stamp a monarchical character on our government but the control of the public finances; and to me it appears strange indeed that any one should doubt that the entire control which the President possesses over the officers who have the custody of the public money, by the power of removal with or without cause, does, for all mischievous purposes at least, virtually subject the treasure also to his disposal. The first Roman emperor, in his attempt to seize the sacred treasure, silenced the opposition of the officer to whose charge it had been committed by a significant allusion to his sword. By a selection of political instruments for the care of the public money a reference to their commissions by a President would be quite as effectual an argument as that of Cæsar to the Roman knight. I am not insensible of the

great difficulty that exists in drawing a proper plan for the safe-keeping and disbursement of the public revenues, and I know the importance which has been attached by men of great abilities and patriotism to the divorce, as it is called, of the treasury from the banking institutions. It is not the divorce which is complained of, but the unhallowed union of the treasury with the executive department, which has created such extensive alarm. To this danger to our republican institutions and that created by the influence given to the executive through the instrumentality of the federal officers I propose to apply all the remedies which may be at my command. It was certainly a great error in the framers of the Constitution not to have made the officer at the head of the treasury department entirely independent of the executive. He should at least have been removable only upon the demand of the popular branch of the legislature. I have determined never to remove a Secretary of the Treasury without communicating all the circumstances attending such removal to both Houses of Congress.

The influence of the executive in controlling the freedom of the elective franchise through the medium of the public officers can be effectually checked by renewing the prohibition published by Mr. Jefferson forbidding their interference in elections further than giving their own votes, and their own independence secured by an assurance of perfect immunity in exercising this sacred privilege of freemen under the dictates of their own unbiased judgments. Never with my consent shall an officer of the people, compensated for his services out of their pockets, become the pliant instrument of executive will.

There is no part of the means placed in the hands of the executive which might be used with greater effect for unhallowed purposes than the control of the public press. The maxim which our ancestors derived from the mother-country that "the freedom of the press is the great bulwark of civil and religious liberty" is one of the most precious legacies which they have left us. We have learned, too, from our own, as well as the experience of other countries, that golden shackles, by whomsoever or by whatever pretence imposed, are as fatal to it as the iron bonds of despotism. The presses in the necessary employment of the government should never be used "to clear the guilty or to varnish crime." A decent and manly examination of the acts of the government should be not only tolerated, but encouraged.

Upon another occasion I have given my opinion, at some length, upon the impropriety of executive interference in the legislation of Congress, that the article in the Constitution making it the duty of the President to communicate information and authorizing him to recommend measures was not intended to make him the source in legislation, and, in particular, that he should never be looked to for schemes of finance. It would be very strange, indeed, that the Constitution should have strictly forbidden one branch to the legislature from interfering in the origination of such bills and that it should be considered proper that an altogether different department of the government should be permitted to do so. Some of our best political maxims and opinions have been drawn from our parent isle. There are others, however, which cannot be introduced in our system without singular incongruity and the production of much mischief, and this I conceive to be one. No matter in which of the Houses of Parliament a bill may originate nor by whom introduced — a minister or a member of the opposition—by the fiction of law, or rather of constitutional principle, the sovereign is supposed to have prepared it agreeably to his will and then submitted it to Parliament for their advice and consent. Now the very reverse is the case here, not only with regard to the principle, but the forms prescribed by the Constitution. The principle certainly assigns to the only body constituted by the Constitution (the legislative body) the power to make laws, and the forms even direct that the enactment should be ascribed to them. The Senate, in relation to revenue bills, have the right to propose amendments, and so has the executive by the power given him to return them to the House of Representatives with his objections. It is in his power also to propose amendments in the existing revenue laws, suggested by his observa-

tions upon their defective or injurious operation. But the delicate duty of devising schemes of revenue should be left where the Constitution has placed it, with the immediate representatives of the people. For similar reasons the mode of keeping the public treasure should be prescribed by them, and the further removed it may be from the control of the executive the more wholesome the arrangement and the more in accordance with republican principle.

Connected with this subject is the character of the currency. The idea of making it exclusively metallic, however well intended, appears to me to be fraught with more fatal consequences than any other scheme having no relation to the personal rights of the citizens that has ever been devised. If any single scheme could produce the effect of arresting at once that mutation of condition by which thousands of our most indigent fellow-citizens by their industry and enterprise are raised to the possession of wealth, that is the one. If there is one measure better calculated than another to produce that state of things so much deprecated by all true republicans, by which the rich are daily adding to their hoards and the poor sinking deeper into penury, it is an exclusive metallic currency. Or if there is a process by which the character of the country for generosity and nobleness of feeling may be destroyed by the great increase and necessary toleration of usury, it is an exclusive metallic currency.

Among the other duties of a delicate character which the President is called upon to perform is the supervision of the government of the Territories of the United States. Those of them which are destined to become members of our great political family are compensated by their rapid progress from infancy to manhood for the partial and temporary deprivation of their political rights. It is in this District only where American citizens are to be found who under a settled policy are deprived of many important political privileges without any inspiring hope as to the future. Their only consolation under circumstances of such deprivation is that of the devoted exterior guards of a camp—that their sufferings secure tranquillity and safety within. Are there any of their countrymen who would subject them to greater sacrifices, to any other humiliations than those essentially necessary to the security of the object for which they were thus separated from their fellow-citizens? Are their rights alone not to be guaranteed by the application of those great principles upon which all our constitutions are founded? We are told by the greatest of British orators and statesmen that at the commencement of the War of the Revolution the most stupid men in England spoke of "their American subjects." Are there, indeed, citizens of any of our States who have dreamed of their subjects in the District of Columbia? Such dreams can never be realized by any agency of mine. The people of the District of Columbia are not the subjects of the people of the States, but free American citizens. Being in the latter condition when the Constitution was formed, no words used in that instrument could have been intended to deprive them of that character. If there is anything in the great principle of unalienable rights so emphatically insisted upon in our Declaration of Independence, they could neither make nor the United States accept a surrender of their liberties and become the subjects—in other words, the slaves—of their former fellow-citizens. If this be true—and it will scarcely be denied by any one who has a correct idea of his own rights as an American citizen—the grant to Congress of exclusive jurisdiction in the District of Columbia can be interpreted, so far as respect the aggregate people of the United States, as meaning nothing more than to allow to Congress the controlling power necessary to afford a free and safe exercise of the functions assigned to the general government by the Constitution. In all other respects the legislation of Congress should be adapted to their peculiar position and wants and be conformable with their deliberate opinions of their own interests.

I have spoken of the necessity of keeping the respective departments of the government, as well as all the other authorities of our country, within their appropriate orbits. This is a matter of difficulty in some cases, as the powers which they respectively claim are often not de-

fined by any distinct lines. Mischievous, however, in their tendencies as collisions of this kind may be, those which arise between the respective communities which for certain purposes compose one nation are much more so, for no such nation can long exist without the careful culture of those feelings of confidence and affection which are the effective bonds to union between free and confederate States. Strong as is the tie of interest, it has been often found ineffectual. Men blinded by their passions have been known to adopt measures for their country in direct opposition to all the suggestions of policy. The alternative, then, is to destroy or keep down a bad passion by creating and fostering a good one, and this seems to be the corner-stone upon which our American political architects have reared the fabric of our government. The cement which was to bind it and perpetuate its existence was the affectionate attachment between all its members. To insure the continuance of this feeling, produced at first by a community of dangers, of sufferings, and of interests, the advantages of each were made accessible to all. No participation in any good possessed by any member of our extensive confederacy, except in domestic government, was withheld from the citizen of any other member. By a process attended with no difficulty, no delay, no expense but that of removal, the citizen of one might become the citizen of any other, and successively of the whole. The lines, too, separating powers to be exercised by the citizens of one State from those of another seem to be so distinctly drawn as to leave no room for misunderstanding. The citizens of each State unite in their persons all the privileges which that character confers and all that they may claim as citizens of the United States, but in no case can the same person at the same time act as the citizen of two separate States, and *he is therefore positively precluded from any interference with the reserved powers of any State but that of which he is for the time being a citizen.* He may, indeed, offer to the citizens of other States his advice as to their management, and the form in which it is tendered is left to his own discretion and sense of propriety. It may be observed, however, that organized associations of citizens requiring compliance with their wishes too much resemble the *recommendations* of Athens to her allies, supported by an armed and powerful fleet. It was, indeed, to the ambition of the leading states of Greece to control the domestic concerns of the others that the destruction of that celebrated confederacy, and subsequently of all its members, is mainly to be attributed, and it is owing to the absence of that spirit that the Helvetic Confederacy has for so many years been preserved. Never has there been seen in the institutions of the separate members of any confederacy more elements of discord. In the principles and forms of government and religion, as well as in the circumstances of the several cantons, so marked a discrepancy was observable as to promise anything but harmony in their intercourse or permanency in their alliance, and yet for ages neither has been interrupted. Content with the positive benefits which their union produced, with the independence and safety from foreign aggression which it secured, these sagacious people respected the institutions of each other, however repugnant to their own principles and prejudices.

Our confederacy, fellow-citizens, can only be preserved by the same forbearance. Our citizens must be content with the exercise of the powers with which the Constitution clothes them. The attempt of those of one State to control the domestic institutions of another can only result in feelings of distrust and jealousy, the certain harbingers of disunion, violence, and civil war, and the ultimate destruction of our free institutions. Our confederacy is perfectly illustrated by the terms and principles governing a common copartnership. There is a fund of power to be exercised under the direction of the joint councils of the allied members, but that which has been reserved by the individual members is intangible by the common government or the individual members composing it. To attempt it finds no support in the principles of our Constitution.

It should be our constant and earnest endeavor mutually to cultivate a spirit of concord and harmony among the vari-

ous parts of our confederacy. Experience has abundantly taught us that the agitation by citizens of one part of the Union of a subject not confided to the general government, but exclusively under the guardianship of the local authorities, is productive of no other consequences than bitterness, alienation, discord, and injury to the very cause which is intended to be advanced. Of all the great interests which appertain to our country, that of union—cordial, confiding, fraternal union—is by far the most important, since it is the only true and sure guarantee of all others.

In consequence of the embarrassed state of business and the currency, some of the States may meet with difficulty in their financial concerns. However deeply we may regret anything imprudent or excessive in the engagements into which States have entered for purposes of their own, it does not become us to disparage the State governments, nor to discourage them from making proper efforts for their own relief. On the contrary, it is our duty to encourage them to the extent of our constitutional authority to apply their best means and cheerfully to make all necessary sacrifices and submit to all necessary burdens to fulfil their engagements and maintain their credit, for the character and credit of the several States form a part of the character and credit of the whole country. The resources of the country are abundant, the enterprise and the activity of our people proverbial, and we may well hope that wise legislation and prudent administration by the respective governments, each acting within its own sphere, will restore former prosperity.

Unpleasant and even dangerous as collisions may sometimes be between the constituted authorities of the citizens of our country in relation to the lines which separate their respective jurisdictions, the results can be of no vital injury to our institutions if that ardent patriotism, that devoted attachment to liberty, that spirit of moderation and forbearance for which our countrymen were once distinguished, continue to be cherished. If this continues to be the ruling passion of our souls, the weaker feelings of the mistaken enthusiast will be corrected, the Utopian dreams of the scheming politician dissipated, and the complicated intrigues of the demagogue rendered harmless. The spirit of liberty is the sovereign balm for every injury which our institutions may receive. On the contrary, no care that can be used in the construction of our government, no division of powers, no distribution of checks in its several departments, will prove effectual to keep us a free people if this spirit is suffered to decay; and decay it will without constant nurture. To the neglect of this duty the best historians agree in attributing the ruin of all the republics with whose existence and fall their writings have made us acquainted.

The same causes will ever produce the same effects, and as long as the love of power is a dominant passion of the human bosom, and as long as the understandings of men can be warped and their affections changed by operations upon their passions and prejudices, so long will the liberties of a people depend on their own constant attention to its preservation. The danger to all well-established free governments arises from the unwillingness of the people to believe in its existence or from the influence of designing men diverting their attention from the quarter whence it approaches to a source from which it can never come. This is the old trick of those who would usurp the government of their country. In the name of democracy they speak, warning the people against the influence of wealth and the danger of aristocracy. History, ancient and modern, is full of such examples. Cæsar became the master of the Roman people and the senate under the pretence of supporting the democratic claims of the former against the aristocracy of the latter; Cromwell, in the character of protector of the liberties of the people, became the dictator of England, and Bolivar possessed himself of unlimited power with the title of his country's liberator. There is, on the contrary, no instance on record of an extensive and well-established republic being changed into an aristocracy. The tendencies of all such governments in their decline is to monarchy, and the antagonist principle to liberty there is the spirit of faction—a spirit which assumes the character and

in times of great excitement imposes itself upon the people as the genuine spirit of freedom, and, like the false Christs whose coming was foretold by the Saviour, seeks to, and were it possible would, impose upon the true and most faithful disciples of liberty. It is in periods like this that it behooves the people to be most watchful of those to whom they have intrusted power. And although there is at times much difficulty in distinguishing the false from the true spirit, a calm and dispassionate investigation will detect the counterfeit, as well by the character of its operations as the results that are produced. The true spirit of liberty, although devoted, persevering, bold, and uncompromising in principle, that secured is mild and tolerant and scrupulous as to the means it employs, while the spirit of party, assuming to be that of liberty, is harsh, vindictive, and intolerant, and totally reckless as to the character of the allies which it brings to the aid of its cause. When the genuine spirit of liberty animates the body of a people to a thorough examination of their affairs, it leads to the excision of every excrescence which may have fastened itself upon any of the departments of the government, and restores the system to its pristine health and beauty. But the reign of an intolerant spirit of party among a free people seldom fails to result in a dangerous accession to the executive power introduced and established amid unusual professions of devotion to democracy.

The foregoing remarks relate almost exclusively to matters connected with our domestic concerns. It may be proper, however, that I should give some indications to my fellow-citizens of my proposed course of conduct in the management of our foreign relations. I assure them, therefore, that it is my intention to use every means in my power to preserve the friendly intercourse which now so happily subsists with every foreign nation, and that although, of course, not well informed as to the state of pending negotiations with any of them, I see in the personal characters of the sovereigns, as well as in the mutual interests of our own and of the governments with which our relations are most intimate, a pleasing guarantee that the harmony so important to the interests of their subjects, as well as of our citizens, will not be interrupted by the advancement of any claim or pretension upon their part to which our honor would not permit us to yield. Long the defender of my country's rights in the field, I trust that my fellow-citizens will not see in my earnest desire to preserve peace with foreign powers any indication that their rights will ever be sacrificed or the honor of the nation tarnished by any admission on the part of their chief magistrate unworthy of their former glory. In our intercourse with our aboriginal neighbors the same liberality and justice which marked the course prescribed to me by two of my illustrious predecessors when acting under their direction in the discharge of the duties of superintendent and commissioner shall be strictly observed. I can conceive of no more sublime spectacle, none more likely to propitiate an impartial and common Creator, than a rigid adherence to the principles of justice on the part of a powerful nation in its transactions with a weaker and uncivilized people whom circumstances have placed at its disposal.

Before concluding, fellow-citizens, I must say something to you on the subject of the parties at this time existing in our country. To me it appears perfectly clear that the interest of that country requires that the violence of the spirit by which those parties are at this time governed must be greatly mitigated, if not entirely extinguished, or consequences will ensue which are appalling to be thought of.

If parties in a republic are necessary to secure a degree of vigilance sufficient to keep the public functionaries within the bounds of law and duty, at that point their usefulness ends. Beyond that they become destructive of public virtue, the parent of a spirit antagonist to that of liberty, and eventually its inevitable conqueror. We have examples of republics where the love of country and of liberty at one time were the dominant passions of the whole mass of citizens, and yet, with the continuance of the name and forms of free government, not a vestige of these qualities remaining in the bosoms of any one of its citizens. It was the beautiful remark of a distinguished Eng-

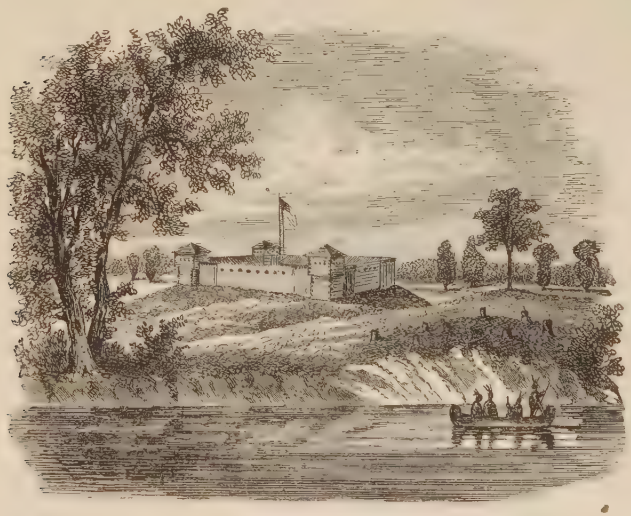
lish writer that "in the Roman senate Octavius had a party and Antony a party, but the Commonwealth had none." Yet the senate continued to meet in the temple of liberty to talk of the sacredness and beauty of the Commonwealth and gaze at the statues of the elder Brutus and of the Curtii and Decii, and the people assembled in the forum, not, as in the days of Camillus and the Scipios, to cast their free votes for annual magistrates, or pass upon the acts of the senate, but to receive from the hands of the leaders of the respective parties their shares of the spoils and to shout for one or the other, as those collected in Gaul or Egypt and the lesser Asia would furnish the larger dividend. The spirit of liberty had fled, and, avoiding the abodes of civilized man, had sought protection in the wilds of Scythia or Scandinavia; and so under the operation of the same causes and influences will fly from our Capitol and our forums. A calamity so awful, not only to our country, but to the world, must be deprecated by every patriot and every tendency to a state of things likely to produce it immediately checked. Such a tendency has existed—does exist. Always the friend of my countrymen, never their flatterer, it becomes my duty to say to them from this high place to which their partiality has exalted me that there exists in the land a spirit hostile to their best interests, hostile to liberty itself. It is a spirit contracted in its views, selfish in its objects. It looks to the aggrandizement of a few, even to the destruction of the interests of the whole. The entire remedy is with the people. Something, however, may be effected by the means which they have placed in my hands. It is union that we want, not of a party for the sake of that party, but a union of the whole country for the sake of the whole country, for the defence of its interests and its honor against foreign aggression, for the defence of those principles for which our ancestors so gloriously contended. As far as it depends upon me it shall be accomplished. All the influence that I possess shall be exerted to prevent the formation at least of an executive party in the halls of the legislative body. I wish for the support of no member of that body to any measure of mine that does not satisfy his judgment and his sense of duty to those from whom he holds his appointment, nor any confidence in advance from the people, but that asked for by Mr. Jefferson, "to give firmness and effect to the legal administration of their affairs."

I deem the present occasion sufficiently important and solemn to justify me in expressing to my fellow-citizens a profound reverence for the Christian religion and a thorough conviction that sound morals, religious liberty, and a just sense of religious responsibility are essentially connected with all true and lasting happiness; and to that good Being who has blessed us by the gifts of civil and religious freedom, who watched over and prospered the labors of our fathers, and has hitherto preserved to us institutions far exceeding in excellence those of any other people, let us unite in fervently commending every interest of our beloved country in all future time.

Fellow-citizens,—Being fully invested with that high office to which the partiality of my countrymen has called me, I now take an affectionate leave of you. You will bear with you to your homes the remembrance of the pledge I have this day given to discharge all the high duties of my exalted station according to the best of my ability, and I shall enter upon their performance with entire confidence in the support of a just and generous people.

Harrison, Fort, a defensive post on the Wabash River, near Terre Haute, Ind. At the very hour when the Pigeon Roost massacre occurred (see Wayne, Fort), two young haymakers were killed and scalped near Fort Harrison. The Prophet (see Elkswatawa) at Tippecanoe was still busy stirring up the Indians against the white people. The garrison of Fort Harrison was commanded by Capt. Zachary Taylor (afterwards President of the United States), who was just recovering from a severe illness. He had been warned by friendly Indians to be on his guard. His garrison was weak, for of the fifty men who composed it not more than a dozen were exempt from the prevailing fever. Only two non-commissioned officers and six privates could mount guard at the same time. In the presence of impending danger some of the convalescents went upon duty

freely. At midnight on Sept. 4, 1812, the Indians stealthily approached the fort and set fire to one of the block-houses, which contained the stores of the garrison. At the same time they furiously attacked the fort with muskets. So feeble in body were the garrison that it was found difficult to keep the flames of the block-house under, and the horrid yells of the Indians made them feel that all was lost, and that they must give up in despair. Two of the stoutest soldiers deserted the post and tried to escape. One was cut in pieces and the other returned. Nothing but the prudence, valor, and presence of mind of the commander saved the post. The fire was subdued by great exertions. At six o'clock



FORT HARRISON, ON THE WABASH.

the next morning the garrison returned the fire of the assailants so briskly that the latter retired out of reach of the guns, after a contest of almost eight hours. They destroyed or drove off the live-stock found in the neighborhood, and for a while after the Indians abandoned the siege the garrison subsisted on green corn from the fields around, which the Indians had spared. Soon afterwards General Hopkins, with Kentucky volunteers, gave ample relief to the sick and weary soldiers at Fort Harrison. Their entire loss in the siege was only three men killed and three wounded.

Harrison, Fort, an eminence below Chapin's Bluff, constituting a part of the defences of Richmond in the Civil War. On the night of Sept. 28, 1864, Generals Ord and Birney, with a considerable force of National troops, crossed the James River on muffled pontoon bridges to attack the Confederate works below Chapin's Bluff, the heaviest of which was Fort Harrison. Ord stormed and carried the fort before reinforcements could reach its thinned garrison. With the fort were captured a long line of intrenchments, with twenty-two pieces of heavy ordnance and about 300 men. In the assault General Burnham was killed and Ord severely wounded. The Nationals lost about 700 men killed and wounded. The strong work was renamed Fort Burnham, in honor of the slain general. Then Fort Gilmer, a little farther on, was assailed by the Nationals, with a loss of 300 men. Meanwhile Birney, with 3,000 colored troops in advance, attacked the Confederate works at Spring Hill, on New Market Heights. These were commanded by Gen. Charles Paine. The Spring Hill redoubt was very strong. On its front was a marsh, and it was further defended by an *abatis*. The eager troops swept across the marsh, scaled the heights, Sept. 29, carried the works at the point of the bayonet, and secured the key-point to the Confederate defences in that quarter. Before the storming party reached the works 200 of them fell dead, and not less than 1,000 were killed, wounded or captured. The Confederates attempted to retake Fort Harrison, Oct. 1, 1864. The troops were under the immediate direction of General Lee. They were driven back, with a loss of seven battle-flags and almost the annihilation of Clingman's North Carolina brigade. Meanwhile General Kautz had pushed up and entered the Confederate outer line,

ATTACK ON FORT HARRISON.

within 3 or 4 miles of Richmond, when he was attacked and driven back, with a loss of nine guns and 400 of his men made prisoners. The Confederates were in turn assailed by the 10th National Army Corps, and, after a severe battle, were driven back, with a loss of 700 men and three brigade commanders.

Harrison's Landing, an important point about 5 miles below the mouth of the Appomattox River, on the right bank of the James. The landing was one of the best on the James, and was made the chief depot of supplies of the Army of the Potomac while it lay there in the summer of 1862, and where it suffered great mortality from malarial fevers. There the commander-in-chief called for reinforcements, reporting, on July 3, that he had "not over 50,000 men with their colors." The President, astounded, went to Harrison's Landing, and found the army greatly disheartened. He found the army 40,000 stronger than the commander had erroneously reported, but was unable to get a reply to his question, "Where are the 75,000 men yet missing?" It was found that 34,000 men, or more than three-fifths of the army reported on the 3d, were absent on furloughs. The general soon afterwards reported 88,665 "present and fit for duty;" absent by authority, 34,472; absent without authority, 3,778; sick, 16,619; making a total of 143,534. A week later the adjutant-general's office reported the total of the Army of the Potomac, exclusive of General Wool's command at Fort Monroe, to be 158,314, of whom 101,691 were present and fit for duty. This great army remained there idle some weeks, suffering greatly from sickness, when it was called to the vicinity of Washington.

Harrisse, HENRY, historian; born in Paris in 1830; naturalized citizen of the United States; practised law in New York for some years. He has published *Bibliotheca Americana Vetustissima; Christophe Colomb; Jean et Sebastien Cabot,* etc.

Hart, ALBERT BUSHNELL, historian; born in Clarksville, Pa., July 1, 1854; graduated at Harvard College in 1880; appointed Professor of History there. His publications include *Formation of the Union; Epoch Maps; Introduction to the Study of Federal Government; Life of Salmon P. Chase; Practical Essays on American Government; American History, told by Contemporaries,* etc.

The Future of the Mississippi Valley. —The great size of the Mississippi Valley, its wonderful fertility, its natural resources, its phenomenal growth in manufactures and commerce, its rapidly increasing population, and its promise for the future, suggest the part which the States included in the Mississippi Valley may play in this country's history.

Professor Hart has written the following essay on the history and the outlook of this section:

"There can be no doubt that the French settlers in the Mississippi Valley will (without timely precaution) greatly effect both the trade and safety of these his Majesty's plantations." This warning, uttered by Governor Spotswood, of Virginia, in 1718, is perhaps the earliest statement of the intimate relation between coast and interior, and of the importance of the Mississippi Valley to Anglo-Saxon civilization; and after 180 years the "trade and safety" of the United States are still powerfully "effected." As a land, as a long-contested region, and as the scene of a great immigration, the Mississippi Valley yields to no region in the world in interest, in romance, and in promise for the future. Here, if anywhere, is the real America—the field, the theatre, and the basis of the future civilization of the Western World. The history of the Mississippi Valley is the history of the United States; its future is the future of one of the most powerful of modern nations.

The word "valley" somehow suggests a narrow defile like the Hudson gorge or the cañon of the Colorado, but the conception of the Mississippi Valley is very different; as may be seen on the map, it is a vast shallow shell tilted up to the westward, and pouring out its waters through the delta at the extreme southern point. If we perambulate the border of this shell, the edges will be seen to fit into and sometimes to dominate the East, North, West, and Southwest of the United States. Starting at the salt inlets north of New Orleans, the rim of the basin runs through a low region till it strikes the southernmost extension of the Appalachian range, in northern Alabama; thence for many hundred miles, as far as western New York, it follows the chain of the mountains—"Backbone Ridge," as it used to be called—and on its way it passes some of the hardest-fought battle-fields of the Civil War—Pittsburg Landing and Chattanooga to the west of it, Stanton and Winchester a little to the east. In places the edge of the shell is raised 6,500 feet above the sea; but when the boundary has once headed and confined the Alleghany River—at Lake Chautauqua—it sweeps westward and northward around the Great Lakes, which it all but drains, and which the new Chicago Canal actually does drain. West of Lake Superior, which it closely skirts, the line bends to the southward to give room for the Red River of the North, and beyond it rises steadily northwestward up the long slopes to the summit of the Rocky Mountains. These it follows—sometimes 14,000 feet above the sea—till the line runs into the upper Red River country; thence it descends to the coast, and reaches the Gulf again within 120 miles of the mouth of the Mississippi. The figure thus circumscribed bears a whimsical resemblance to an enormous spread eagle—its claws dug into the delta of the great river, its eastern wing somewhat withdrawn from the Atlantic coast, its western wing swung over far into British territory, and flapping lustily towards the Pacific Ocean.

From the rim of this vast hollow start streams which speedily join into the immense river system which finally converges into the Mississippi River. From the farthest source of the farthest tributary of the upper Missouri in the Canadian Rockies, following down the channel to the Gulf, the river is 4,200 miles long; and upon about 5,000 miles of waterway within the valley steamboats may navigate. The Amazon and its giant tributaries surpass it in length of navigable tributaries, and

MAP OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

in the area of their watershed, but ages must pass before the tropical Amazon is made the seat of thronging millions; the Congo is broken by rapids, and drains a poisonous land; the Yang-tse-Kiang, mostly comparable to the Mississippi, is an eastern flowing river, while the Mississippi is the great south-flowing stream of the world, and its valley is politically and commercially the most important; its area of 1,240,000 square miles is two-fifths of the whole continental area of the United States, and more than two-thirds of its arable surface. The Mississippi is not only a great river; it waters a temperate area of rich land, spread so freely that from end to end there is no serious obstacle to traffic; and the valley is the home of a vigorous and advancing civilization.

Even in our day, when explorers disappear in African forests and years after emerge upon the other side of the continent, we may share the stimulus and the excitement of the first discoverers of the great river. De Soto found it in 1542, "near half a league broad and 16 fathoms deep, and very furious, and ran with a great current." Marquette in 1673 rejoiced to behold the celebrated river, "whose singularities," he says, "I have attentively studied." La Salle in 1682 came to a reach where "the water is brackish; after advancing on we discovered an open sea, so that on April 9, with all due solemnity, we performed the ceremony of planting the cross and raising the arms of France." La Salle did not think he was preparing an empire for his country's greatest rival, to be occupied by the children of the Englishman.

Throughout colonial history romance and adventure still hung about the great river and its tributaries. In 1699 came the first French settlers on the coast, and a few

years later they founded a city known throughout the world, and named after their own beloved town of Orleans.

Fifty years later a wave of English settlement came rolling up above the crest of the Alleghanies, and began to flow into the country of the "Belle Rivière," the Ohio River, still beautiful where factories, mines, and coal-dust permit. Pioneer, surveyor, commander, and popular leader, came the young George Washington across the water-shed into the Mississippi Valley, the first English officer to be captured by the enemy in 1754, the last to leave the field after Braddock's defeat in 1755; and the brave and canny Virginian so much admired what he saw of the country that he acquired 40,000 acres upon the Little Kanawha and the Ohio. "What inducement have men to explore uninhabited wilds," said he, "but the prospect of getting good land?" Into the valley penetrated also Daniel Boone in 1769. farthest wall of the Rocky Mountains, passed Lewis and Clark, first of white men to find the road from the waters of the Mississippi to the waters of the Columbia. On Aug. 12, 1805, they reached the point where one of the party bestrode the Missouri River, up which they had labored so many months, and just beyond was the long-sought western rim of the valley.

From the year 1715, when France and England went mad over a Mississippi bubble, down to the present time, the Mississippi has been a household word throughout the civilized world. Ships of Marseilles, ships of Bordeaux, ships of Bremen, ships of Liverpool, set their course for the mouth of the Mississippi, that they may bring eager immigrants into the promised land; and the stolid peasant in Bohemia or Hungary lays down his guldens for a slip of pasteboard upon which are printed the talismanic words "New York—St. Louis—Kansas City—

A DISCOVERER OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

"My wife and daughter," said he, "being the first white women that ever stood on the banks of the Kentucke River." In 1803 to 1806, across the Mississippi Valley, all the way from Washington to the Helena." Into a land which a century ago had not 100,000 people has converged a stream of settlers from East, South, and North, heaping up activity and prosperity as the meteors are said to sustain the heat

of the sun into which they fall. Mountains have been no barrier, and a civil war could not tear apart the northern and the southern halves of the great valley.

When in 1790 Congress was discussing the question of a permanent seat of government, Mr. Vining, of Delaware, favored the lower Potomac:

"From thence, it appears to me, the rays of government will most naturally diverge to the extremities of the Union. I declare that I look on the Western territory in an awful and striking point of view. To that region the unpolished sons of earth are flowing from all quarters—men to whom the protection of the laws and the controlling force of the government are equally necessary. From this great consideration I conclude that the banks of the Potomac are the proper station."

Mr. Vining was justified in looking upon the colonization of the West with uneasiness; for few parts of the earth have so heterogeneous a population; when he spoke, there were already within those territories the then numerous, fierce, and warlike Indians, numerous settlements of French people in the Illinois country and in the Mississippi, and Spanish garrisons and colonists on the lower Mississippi; men of English race had already brought Kentucky and Tennessee almost to the point of statehood; and negro slaves were to be found in most of the settlements, by their presence slowly preparing for the great catastrophe of the Civil War.

In 1787 began the never-ceasing current of immigrants into the Mississippi Valley from the Eastern States; through the Mohawk Valley to the Western Reserve; through southern Pennsylvania to the Ohio; through Virginia to Kentucky and Tennessee—a steady procession of stalwart men and stout-hearted women; and still the same procession is in motion. About 1830 began the great western movement of foreign immigrants, which has grown till in 1890 there were 280,000 Germans in Wisconsin, 150,000 Irish in Illinois, 220,000 Scandinavians in Minnesota, 140,000 English-born in Michigan, and more than 400,000 Slavs in the Northwestern States together. In the State of Minnesota only one-fourth of the people in 1890 were born even of American parents. The foreign passer-by in the streets of Cincinnati, or St. Louis, or Kansas City, may well say with the Jews of old time: "And how hear we every man in our own tongue, wherein we were born? Parthians, and Medes, and Elamites, and the dwellers in Mesopotamia, and in Judea, and Cappadocia, in Pontus, and Asia, Phrygia, and Pamphylia, in Egypt, and in the parts of Libya about Cyrene, and strangers of Rome, Jews and proselytes, Cretes and Arabians, we do hear them speak in our tongues."

These inflowing streams of immigration have combined with the rapid rate of natural increase to raise the population more rapidly than in any similar area in the world. In 1810 the dwellers in the Mississippi Valley numbered about 1,000,000, in 1850 they were 8,000,000, in 1890 about 28,000,000; to-day they are probably 35,000,000. Cincinnati was in 1830 already a flourishing town with some pretence to refined civilization; and fifty years ago the railway from the East had almost reached Chicago. Now half the population of the Union lives in the Mississippi basin, and of this half about one-fourth lives in cities.

The population has not only been distributed, it has been redistributed. From the earliest settlement to the present day there is to be found a race of men the birthplaces of whose children mark their temporary resting-places as they moved from State to State. Thus flowing back and forth, northward and southward, westward and eastward, pass the units of population, exchanging experiences, knocking off prejudices, and coming to a common understanding and a sympathy of man with man, which may ignore State boundaries, but kneads the people into a homogeneous nation.

The word "wealth" seems to carry with it a rattling of silver dollars and the crisp crackle of fresh coupon bonds; or, at least, it suggests the dark façades of towering buildings, and train-loads and steamer-cargoes of valuable goods. All these the Mississippi Valley has in plenty, and it had them all potentially before ever a bank opened its doors in the West or a locomotive whistle shrieked; for the accumulations have all come from the face

of the land and the depths of the earth beneath. The first gift of the Almighty to this favored land was its soil—the rich lower slopes of the Alleghanies, the great timbered regions of the eastern and southern valley, and the inestimable prairie soil of the broad Western States. Nowhere in the world is there a better watered land; little streams everywhere abound and there is a copious rainfall up to the foot-hills of the Rockies. In all the region crinkled by the North American ice-sheets, lovely lakes abound. As the Kentuckian poor white reverently said of his own neighborhood: "Natur' has made ponds up on the mounting." Even on the long and desolate eastern slopes of the Rockies some few places are made to blossom by irrigating canals.

Next in value comes the timber. Birkbeck saw in southern Ohio walnut-trees "almost 7 feet in diameter, green and straight as an arrow," and thousands of white-oak trees "measuring 14 or 15 feet in circumference; every tree stands upright without a branch to the height of 70 or 80 feet." Most of these trees were burned where they were felled or were rolled into the streams to be rid of them; but they furnished comfortable homes for three generations of men, and some of the largest fortunes in the West have been sawed out of the forests on the upper Mississippi.

Below the surface of the ground lies the coal, which takes its revenge for its displacement by fouling the homes of the men who exploit it; the limestone, which

PIONEERS FARMING.

HIGH WATER, MISSISSIPPI.

tears from the ore that earthy part which prevents it from becoming iron; and much of the iron ore from which comes the universal steel tree, yielding branches in every shape and for every purpose. Far to the west, in the heart of the Rockies, the mountains cover gold, silver, and the copper slave of the electric lamp.

The wealth that comes from above the ground is vastly greater than the mineral. A large part of the valley abounds in grazing regions and raises an immense hay crop. The great staple, corn, flourishes on almost every square mile of the valley. The wheat belt follows the line of the North American ice-sheet; and farther south is the best and the largest cotton-field in the world, every year expanding in area and importance; while the Louisiana sugar-planter, when the sound of the grinding is low, ruminates upon the tariff. In the single year 1895 the corn product of the United States (mostly raised in the Mississippi Valley) was more than 2,000,000,000 bushels; the wheat crop was 467,000,000 bushels; and the total value of the cereal crop was over $1,000,000,000.

To move these fruits of the earth and sky, the country is gridironed with railroads; and the rivers, which once were the usual highways, have now ceased even to be impediments to travel, for they are everywhere spanned with strong and expensive bridges. The farm buildings throughout the northern valley are, without doubt, the best houses for an agricultural population that the world has ever known; and the cities, however unkempt and grimy, give more comfort for the artisan and his family than can anywhere else be found.

Prairie soil, coal, bridges, and great buildings crammed with dry goods, are wealth, but they may not be civilization. Among a certain class of Americans there is a habit of wagging the head at the broad West, of accusing it of more devotion to hog and hominy than to the development and culture of the race. Until a few years ago this gibe had some foundation, for the first element in the untiring contest with nature was the taming of the wilderness, the housing of the settler, the clothing of children, and the preparation of a stock of food that might last until the next year. Roughhewn and often forbidding was the West of three-quarters of a century ago, and still more the Southwest. Can it be only sixty-four years ago that Featherstonehaugh, upon an Arkansas stream, saw his steamer boarded by a gang of passengers, including two officers of the regular army? "The effect produced on us was something like that which would be made upon passengers in a peaceful vessel forcibly boarded by pirates of the most desperate character, whose manners seemed to be what they aspired to imitate. Rushing into the cabin, all but red-hot with whiskey, they crowded round the stove, and excluded all the old passengers from it as much as if they had no right whatever to be in the cabin. Putting on a determined, bullying air of doing what they

pleased because they were in the majority, and armed with pistols and knives expressly made for cutting and stabbing, 8 inches long and 1½ inches broad, noise, confusion, spitting, smoking, cursing, and swearing, drawn from the most remorseless pages of blasphemy, commenced and prevailed from the moment of this invasion." In 1830 Flint, a keen observer, was struck by the multiplicity of "floating river monsters," keel-boats, slow boats, sleds, mackinaw skiffs, common skiffs, canoes, dug-outs, horse-boats, broad-horns, and Kentucky flats, that he predicted that "the inhabitants will ultimately become celebrated as the Chinese for having their habitancy in boats." Until the railroads penetrated far into the West the Mississippi Valley was simply a broad frontier, with all the frontier tumult, coarseness, uproar, and also with all the alertness and vigor and self-confidence of an infant commonwealth.

Crude were the conditions of the Western settler. Take, as an example, an Indiana hunter in 1818: "The cabin in which he entertained us is the third building he has built within the last twelve months, and a very slender motive would place him in a fourth before the ensuing winter; he is incarcerated, shut 'from the common air,' buried in the depths of the boundless forest; the breeze of health never reaches these poor wanderers; the broad prospect of distant hills having faded away, the semblance of clouds never cheered their sight; they are tall and pale, like vegetables that grow in a vault pining for light."

Even the religious life half a century ago was crude and emotional. Peter Cartwright, the political rival of Abraham Lincoln, and a real intellectual and moral force, gives us a vivid picture of the home missionary's life at a time when all the clergy were practically home missionaries. Starting in 1816 as a travelling preacher, on a nominal allowance of "eighty dollars a year, and a few dollars over made as marriage fees"; preaching four hundred times a year, and receiving converts who "jumped from bench to bench, knocking the people against one another on the right and left, front and rear." Even to this day the "Old-Two-Seed-in-the Spirit Predestinarian Baptists" have thousands of members in the Mississippi States.

Education was long a crude affair, and a boy like Abraham Lincoln found "some schools, so-called, but no qualification was ever required of a teacher beyond 'readin', writin', and cipherin'' to the rule of three. If a straggler supposed to understand Latin happened to sojourn in the neighborhood, he was looked upon as a wizard. There was absolutely nothing to stimulate ambition for education." The

LOW WATER, MISSISSIPPI.

earliest university, Western Reserve, founded at Hudson, Ohio, to be a Western Yale, was for many years a small school, and in the class of 1840 there were but five graduates. But just as great and beautiful cities have sprung from the prairies and in the midst of the forests, so out of these troublesome and ignorant conditions came a master of English style like Abraham Lincoln.

So far as intellectual appliances were concerned, the great West grew very slowly and from small beginnings. James Hall, in 1835, attempted to gather some of the traditions of the past into his *Sketches of the West*, and edited a magazine — *The Western Souvenir*—and about the same time Timothy Flint began to publish his *Western Monthly Review*. Newspapers there were in plenty. About 1830, in the little city of Cincinnati, regularly appeared the semi-weekly *Liberty Hall and the Cincinnati Gazette*, the *National Republican and Cincinnati Advertiser*, the weekly *Emporium* and *Independent Press*, and one daily, the *Commercial Advertiser*. To this day many parts of remote regions like Arkansas and the Mississippi lowlands are less civilized than the Ohio of seventy years ago. In reformatory and charitable institutions the Mississippi Valley has learned slowly. Our frontier great-grandfathers were frankly cruel — cruel to their children, cruel to their apprentices, cruel to the insane, cruel to the paupers, cruel to convicts, and cruel to slaves. The border fights and gougings of the West shocked foreign and Eastern travellers, and Fearon has preserved a handbill of 1818 describing an "extraordinary fight of *furious animals*" in New Orleans:

"1st Fight—A strong Attakapas Bull, attacked and subdued by six of the strongest dogs in the country.

"2d Fight—Six Bull-dogs against a Canadian Bear.

"3d Fight—A beautiful Tiger against a black Bear.

"4th Fight—Twelve dogs against a strong and furious Opelousas Bull."

The political effect of the Mississippi Valley upon the Union and its policy is a story yet to be written. The great slavery contest set North against South, and this obscured the normal coherence and weight of the central Western States. Perhaps the first evidence of the political influence of the valley was the intense desire of the people of the United States to occupy it; Rogers Clark in 1778 was a herald of national interest in the West. The earliest settlers on the head-waters of the Tennessee and the Cumberland instinctively saw that their highway was the

A BIT OF OLD NEW ORLEANS.

Mississippi and their gateway was New Orleans; and the annexation of Louisiana was from the first as inevitable as the plunge of the waters over Niagara. It was not in human power to keep the eastern and the western banks of the Mississippi apart from each other; and in the cession of west Florida and Texas the edge of the great valley was rounded out and became a part of the United States. Thus the Mississippi Valley, from 1783 to 1845, was well accustomed to schemes of annexation; and perhaps for that reason the influence of Western sentiment has been in favor of the increase of the Union by taking territory on the Pacific and in outlying islands.

Several other great lines of public policy have been dominated, if not created, by the West. The first and second United States Banks were Eastern concerns founded by Eastern and foreign capital, and the West instinctively disliked them both; hence Jackson, in his war upon the bank, was in a way a champion of the Mississippi Valley against the Atlantic coast, and to this day there is a feeling of rivalry, or rather of injury, in the minds of the people of the West against what they believe to be an undue advantage of Eastern capital, a feeling which is as yet too little understood or heeded by the older sections of the Union.

Internal improvements are a Western necessity, and the expenditure of national money upon roads and canals has always commended itself to the West. That the system of river and harbor improvement, neglected by Jefferson, disliked by Madison, vetoed by Monroe, frowned upon by Jackson, set back by Polk and Pierce and Buchanan, should nevertheless have become a permanent part of the national activities is a striking proof of the immense political force of the West. The protective tariff has also for many years owed its strength in the country to the Western vote; the attitude of Kentucky and Ohio made possible the tariffs of 1816, 1828, and 1832; and the revival of the protective system at the beginning of the Civil War, and its continuance at the present day, have depended upon the votes of the great Northwestern agricultural States, as well as of manufacturing communities like Ohio and Illinois.

If there be one distinct American principle, it is that of political equality; and political equality is distinctly a Western and not an Eastern or a Southern idea. In none of the colonies was there manhood suffrage; in none of the early States was there an expectation that numbers would rule. It was on the frontier, the ever-advancing frontier, for many years identical with the West, that the principle became practical. That influence has spread eastward and modified the coast communities; but it is a Western conception; it affects France and makes headway in England; but it is even now stronger in the Mississippi Valley than in the direct offshoots of England—Canada and Australia.

This brief sketch of the historical conditions of the Mississippi Valley is necessary if we are to avoid mere guess and speculation in pointing out the probable future of the region. What is the likelihood that the population of the Mississippi Valley will continue to increase? The problem is chiefly one of making the land available; for there is little danger of the calamity of rapine, familiar pastimes which have depopulated like areas in Europe and Asia. Nowhere in the world are the conditions of subsistence more favorable, for the fertility of the soil and the variety of climate make possible an unequalled food-supply, which so far has sufficed not only for the people of the valley, but for their brethren on the seacoast and for millions of Europeans. For many years to come this food-supply can be steadily increased, both by opening up hitherto untilled lands and by more intensive culture. Although the best arable government lands have long since passed into the hands of settlers, there are still immense tracts of railroad lands not yet occupied; and, especially in the South, quantities of excellent land have never been cleared and submitted to the plough. There is, of course, a limit to the number of people whom the soil will actually support. In the similar Yang-tse-Kiang and Hoang-Ho valleys in China about 300,000,000 people live from an area about as large as the Mississippi Valley. When we compare means of transportation in China

with those in the Mississippi Valley, when we see how easy it is in America to send a surplus from one district to supply a deficiency in another, when we consider the enormous credit facilities which enable the community to endure one or two, or even three, years of bad crops without starvation anywhere, there seems to be no reason why the Mississippi Valley may not some time contain a population of 350,000,000 comfortable people, or ten times its present number. The difficult problem is not to raise sufficient crops, but to keep upon the land a sufficient number of persons to till it; but the Mississippi Valley is the home of a most skilful system of machinery, which amplifies the labor of the farmer twentyfold.

Certainly the West will always be able to clothe itself. Its immense cotton-fields already furnish hundreds of millions of yards of fabric for men and women; its cattle-ranges prepare for everybody a leathern carpet between the foot and the too-adherent soil; and if its sheep still shyly hold back from the encouragement of the wool schedules in the tariff, the West has always a surplus of food products and manufactured goods, with which it may buy its woollen clothing from other lands.

The problem of immigration is different. The free land which drew hundreds of thousands of Scandinavians, Germans, and Europeans to the Western prairies is no longer to be found. Even the bottoms of the upper Missouri have been taken up, and the wide plains parallel with it would be occupied too, were it not that, as a distinguished geologist says, "the farmers arrived on the upper Missouri 10,000 years too late; for the river has cut down its channel so deep that they cannot get the water into irrigation canals." The gross number of immigrants into the West is now only about two-thirds as great as a decade ago, and the conditions of the peasantry in Germany and Ireland have so improved that there is no longer the old incitement to cross the ocean, but other races have seen the westward moving star of empire, and eastern and southern Europe now furnish the crude laborers, the hewers of wood and drawers of water, without whom no community can become great. Relatively to the total population, the immigrants are already becoming fewer every year; and a generation hence, when the children of the Pole and Hungarian, the Italian, the Dane, the Greek, and the Armenian, have been fused in the crucible of the public schools, and shaped by the mutual hammering of playmates and friends, the population of the valley will be more distinctly American—not the old American descended almost wholly from English ancestors, but a vigorous, active, and probably open-minded composite American. The negro problem is serious in only half a dozen of the valley States, and does not hem in the future of the Mississippi basin as it does that of the South Atlantic States.

The greatest checks to the rapid increase of the population of nations in the history of the world have been famine, disease, and war. The days have passed when a Texan could curiously inquire: "What do these people in New York mean by talking about people starving to death? Doesn't any darned fool know enough to take his rifle and shoot a beef critter when he's hungry?" So far as we can look into the future, there will be bread and to spare for the children of this great household. Epidemics and disease may sweep through the country; since the days of La Salle fever and ague has been the bane of every community in the Mississippi Valley, except the one in which you happen to be living at the moment; but there has been no wide-sweeping epidemic in the West since the cholera year of 1832, and the sanitary conditions of the cities tend to improve. The advance of medical science makes the Mississippi Valley reasonably safe from devastation by pestilence. As for war, the Mississippi Valley has now no enemies within the Union, and from invasion St. Louis is as safe as Nijni-Novgorod or Stanley Pool.

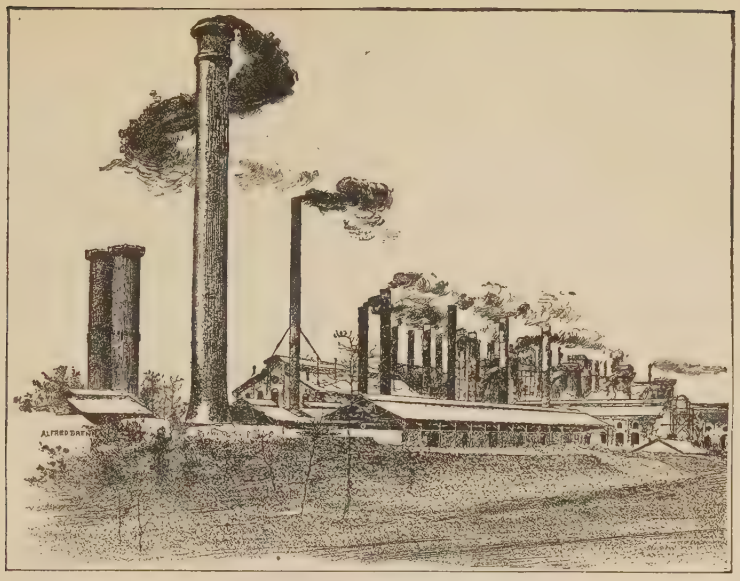
Hence the only probable check upon the rapid increase of population is one which has already made itself felt throughout the Union—the increasing difficulty of giving children a good start, and the consequent diminution of the size of families. Seventy years ago plenty of people in Ohio had twenty adult uncles and aunts, many of them married; and some young people could boast of a hundred first

cousins. To-day, except among foreigners, a family of six is remarkable. This means a slower rate of increase. The Mississippi Valley has more than doubled its population in every twenty-five years during the last century. At that rate it would have 560,000,000 in the year 2000, but he would be a bold man who would predict a population of 200,000,000 in that year, for it would be almost as dense as Belgium or Holland.

If the present average scale of living continue, every doubling of the population will mean a doubling of available capital and wealth. But who can say whether the mechanical discoveries of the next century may not vastly increase the average wealth? and, on the other hand, who can say how far property may be concentrated in a few hands or combined in some kind of national socialism? The wealth of the Mississippi Valley in arable land already lies beneath the feet of the people, but the upper slopes on the Appalachian rim of the valley are still very little cultivated, though the Tennessee, Kentucky, and Georgia mountains are probably capable of supporting as abundant and as thriving a population as that of the Black Forest or the ranges of the Jura Mountains. In the lowlands exhausted soils, formerly allowed to go to ruin, are now restored by the wide-spreading use of fertilizers; and as population grows and land becomes more valuable, a stop will be put to the annihilation of soil through cutting off the timber and the consequent waste of the steep slopes thus exposed to running water. Everywhere a more intensive cultivation must come in. The day is past when twenty-five good crops of wheat can be raised from the same land, except by rotation and skilful husbandry. The amazing heritage of wealth in the rich soil must be hoarded.

Timber, first a nuisance, then a source of profit, and now a declining industry, will again become a great wealth-producer when the hideous deforested areas on the upper waters of the Mississippi are intelligently restored to their tree-bearing function. As wood increases in value, houses of brick and stone will become usual as in other countries. The immense suburbs of wooden dwellings found everywhere throughout the Mississippi Valley will eventually be swept away by fires, but their place will be taken by more enduring structures; yet five centuries hence there will still be standing well-

CARRIERS OF THE GREAT LAKES



SMELTING-WORKS, CHATTANOOGA.

preserved wooden houses of the present day.

As for the minerals, each succeeding generation shakes its head and predicts extinction. Twenty years ago the oil wells of the Alleghany River began to fail, yet now six times more oil is marketed every year than in those flush days. Heaps of slack mark the mouths of the old "coal banks" in Pennsylvania and central Ohio; but ever-widening coal-fields are opened up in Illinois, in the Indian Territory, in the Dakotas, and in Montana. Inexhaustible these deposits certainly are not, but from decade to decade arrive new applications and simplifications of power and new ways of utilizing the full force imprisoned in the coal.

The abundance of God's gifts of fuel has brought about one of the weakest elements in Western character—the indifference to the filth and squalor of a smoke-laden atmosphere. The first condition of health and decency is cleanliness, and nobody can keep clean in any Western city. As a question of mere money-making and money-saving, the people of the Mississippi Valley show themselves incompetent and barbarous, for the extra profits from the unrestricted use of soft coal are more than counterbalanced by the expense of necessary renewals of soap, clothing, wall-paper, furniture, and paint, to say nothing of breathing the sulphur fumes and rubbing the grime into the countenances of the people and their children. Not always will factory chimneys spread their pall upon the sky. Most of us will live to see the Western cities supplied with gas piped from the mining regions, and supplied as we now supply water to every user.

The development of other minerals is beyond the reach of prediction. What we do know is that gold, silver, lead, and copper are extracted upon constantly more and more favorable terms as science, energy, and skill combine to make the old deposits more available and to discover new. The great problem here is not to discover mines, but to save for the common benefit the riches which nature has stored up and which individuals are appropriating.

One form of wealth, most obvious in other civilized countries, the Mississippi Valley as yet knows little of, for it has few good highways, though every variety may be found. The "Kentucky dirt road" wriggles down the side of a hill,

as though a waterspout had burst at the top and carried down soil and rock in a confused channel; the deep-worn Southern track cuts into the red soil; the ribbon road lies on the Dakota prairie; the viscous winter slough of northern Ohio clay pulls off the horses' shoes; the stone pikes of Tennessee jolt the wayfarer; and the splendid macadam parkways of favored cities show what good roads may be. As yet the people of the Mississippi Valley do not dream of the comfort and profit possible from a system of roads always in order—good, hard, serviceable all the year round, well surveyed, and so engineered that the steep hills disappear. Hundreds of millions of dollars have been spent upon making city streets and country roads, and millions are spent every year, and yet there is no one single Western State that has a system of highways which would be tolerated in the smallest German principality, or in the frontier and almost barbarian regions of Herzegovina and Bosnia. The obstacle seems to be the cost of labor, or rather the assumption that road-making requires skilled labor. Perhaps the great problem of convict labor is to be solved by an intelligent system of road-construction adequate to the needs of a civilized people.

OKLAHOMA ON THE DAY OF THE OPENING.

In the future, as at the present, the great wealth of the Mississippi Valley is certain to be centred in the cities, rich in accumulations of buildings and of stocks of goods, and rich also in the evidences of ownership of manufacturing and transporting corporations. Indeed, the rapid growth of these Western cities is already among the world's wonders: a house standing alone on the prairie; the station on a new railroad; the junction crossing of two railroads; a little manufacturing place upon which new railroads converge; a big, bustling town, full of life; a city, with a beautiful residence quarter and a squalid, dust-ridden settlement down at the railroad stations; a great city, with a union depot and a chamber of commerce, asking architects all over the world to compete on its buildings; a splendid city, a beehive of busy men and women, luxurious and magnificent, with imposing public buildings and boulevards and miles of comfortable homes.

Up to this time it must be owned that the Mississippi Valley has run rather to great cities than to notable communities. New Orleans is the one ancient city in the whole region. St. Louis and Kansas City, Omaha, St. Paul, and Minneapolis, Memphis, Cincinnati, Pittsburg, and Denver, are most of them still in the rough, everywhere edges showing, vacant lots gaping, unsightly earth banks furnishing ugliness to the eye and dust to the nostrils. And through most parts of the West the villages and country towns are much inferior to those of New England, New York, or northern Ohio in trimness and tidiness. Fifty years hence these cities will be more closed up, more trim and turf-edged, and some of them, notably Minneapolis, have already entered upon the construction of a wide-reaching system of parks, to be a beauty and a joy to later generations. When the population of the valley reaches 250,000,000, several of the present cities will have a population of from 2,000,000 to 10,000,000, and woe betide them if

OKLAHOMA FOUR WEEKS LATER.

they do not now make provision for the health and enjoyment of later times! It is with all these cities much as with the metropolis of the West; a keen observer who visited the buildings of the Chicago Fair while in construction came away overwhelmed and silent. At last he lifted up his voice, "No wonder these Chicago people don't believe in a God, when they can do such things as these for themselves."

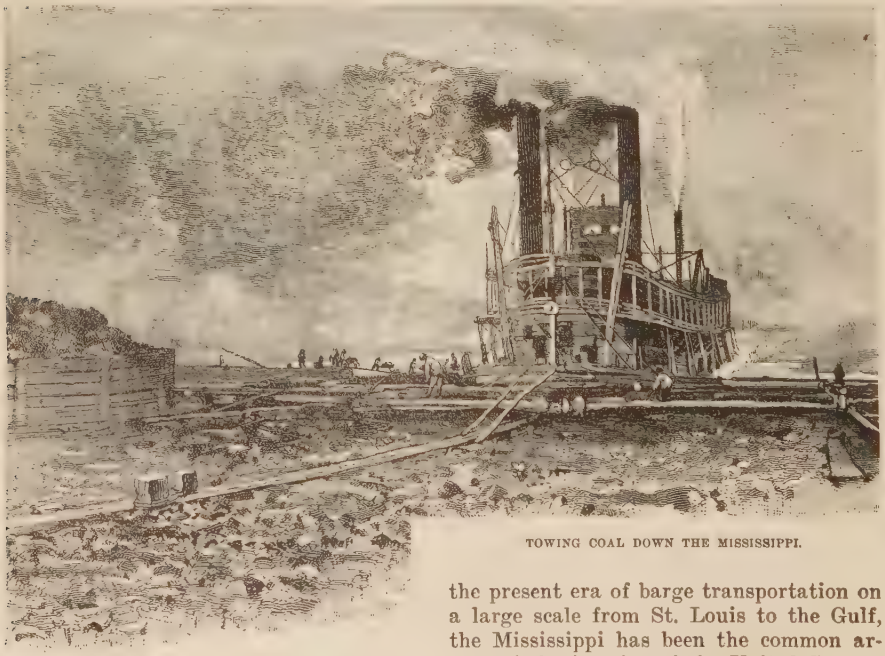
When the Federalists in 1803 protested against the annexation of Louisiana, they were wise in their day and generation, for they were right in expecting that eventually the supremacy of the Atlantic coast States would disappear. In the Presidential election of 1828, the States of the Mississippi Valley had the balance of power, and threw it without hesitation for Andrew Jackson for President; and in the West soon after sprang up the effective Free Soil party, which gradually developed into the Republican party of 1856. The States of the Mississippi Valley now cast 215 electoral votes out of 444; the census of 1900 will give them a majority of the electors, as they already have almost a majority of Senators. Of course this political influence has never been concentrated, because of divisions between North and South and between political parties; but in the councils of public men in Washington the voice of the Western members is always powerful and often paramount.

The term "West" is here used in the Atlantic coast sense, for Ohio and even Illinois are thought by the communities beyond the Mississippi to have an Eastern savor, and some people have even expected a division of the Union on the line of the Appalachian Mountains. Almost the only perfectly safe prediction about the Mississippi Valley is that it will never be politically disassociated from the

Atlantic and Pacific coasts. The French sought to build up an inland empire, and the force of political gravity drew their realm towards the Atlantic settlements. Burr dreamed a dream of a Mississippi kingdom, and he could not convince even the shallow Wilkinson that it was possible. Jefferson Davis offered the alliance of the Southern Confederacy to the Northwest States, and they clave to their Eastern brethren. The East and West are no more politically separated from each other than Rhode Island from Connecticut, or Illinois from Iowa. The Appalachian Mountains have long ceased to be a physical barrier between East and West, and the two sections are dependent upon each other—the West has the food-supply; the East, the manufactories and seaports.

If the two sections were at this moment separate countries, the object of the statesmen in the East would be to open up unrestricted trade with the West, and the Mississippi Valley would strain every nerve to get a sea-front. The experiment of trying to establish a difference of political interest between East and West was fully tried in 1861, when the Southern Confederacy tried to attach the Western States by offering them the unrestricted use of the Mississippi River. The force of self-interest then and there compelled the West to stand by its seaport relations, and at the same time to insist upon its right to the Mississippi. The most enduring lesson of the Civil War is that no State, or group of States, will ever be allowed to withdraw from its sisters without war.

Indeed, many parts of the West are simply transplantations from the East; thus the Western Reserve of Ohio was for years a little Connecticut; Michigan has the New England town-meeting; Massachusetts men abound in Minnesota, and New Yorkers in Illinois and Nebraska. Rivalry between the two sections there will always be; divergence and disunion will never come. From the days when the Kentucky "broad-horn" boats were seized by the Spanish at New Orleans, down to the present era of barge transportation on a large scale from St. Louis to the Gulf, the Mississippi has been the common artery of the interior of the United States; but it has never superseded the old highways through the Mohawk and across the mountains of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia.



TOWING COAL DOWN THE MISSISSIPPI.

Nevertheless, the existence of a distinct and self-conscious section having seaports only on the Gulf does deeply affect the direction of national policy, especially in foreign relations. Our forefathers valiantly fought a valiant foe in their Indian wars, and our fathers measured their strength against each other in the Civil War; but the Mississippi Valley is, and must henceforth be, a region of internal peace. A miners' riot, a little shooting of negroes at an election, a railroad strike, are the only opportunities for the use of force within the boundaries of the valley. A few years ago the legislature of West Virginia presented a sword to one of its sons who was an officer in the United States navy, and bade him be ever ready to draw that sword for the defence of his native State. Not till the enemies' gunboats find their way up the Mississippi, Ohio, and the Great Kanawha to West Virginia will the Mississippi Valley have to defend itself. Yet no one who has watched the trend of public opinion during the last few years can doubt that it is the fixed desire of the majority of people in the interior to extend the power and influence of the United States by annexation of territory and by a share in the world's diplomacy. It is not simply its sheltered position which leads to this feeling, for the West is ready to pour forth its sons for national defence, or even for national aggression; it is a desire that a great nation should have a great part in the world at large. In case of real war, the coast cities may have to pay the bill, but, for good or evil, the foreign policy of the United States appears to be in the hands of the people of the Mississippi Valley.

One of the most frequent criticisms of the West is that the people are more impressed by a big thing than by a good thing. Immensity, broad space, towering mountains, the vastness of the Mississippi, impress the imagination of the people; the greatest river in North America, the longest air-line in the world, the heaviest ten-wheel consolidation locomotive drawing the longest train of most heavily laden cars bursting with the biggest crop of wheat sold for the most money in the history of mankind—these are the staples of the journalist, the subject of conversation. The vice of megalomania is, however, not confined to Gulf-directed waters. Great, roaring New York, broad-spread Philadelphia, Boston of the Public Library, have also their own standards of what is grandest in the world; one might say of the West what was once remarked about a new university which made no secret of its advantages, "The trumpet is a pretty toy for children"; and the West might reply, with Dr. Sampson, "Yes, I am a vain man; but then I have good rizzon to be vain."

The biggest stock-yard in the world is important, and becomes more important as dinner-time approaches; but a little thoroughbred may be more valuable than a car-load of Indian ponies. In a country town of New Hampshire is a little open-air theatre constructed on the modest estate of the artist who designed it, by the friendly aid of neighbors; it is as much a work of art as the Washington Monument on the Potomac flats. The West appreciates the monument, but would think the theatre a plaything, and cannot quite understand that dimensions have nothing to do with beauty or comfort, or with success. The truth is that the West is just now in the condition of a great building solidly founded, well constructed, but still surrounded by stagings, the people as yet more interested in the height of the walls than in the beauty of a cornice or the humor of a gargoyle. What the West needs—and what the East needs, for that matter—is a proper scale of proportion, such as makes one Lincoln look larger than 10,000 aldermen.

The people of the West need no one to tell them that they are many, rich, powerful, prosperous, and advancing. What they do need, most of all, is that respect for trained expert opinion which is so difficult to secure in a democratic republic like ours; and a broader standard of distinction.

Pork, corn, wheat, cotton, sugar, steel rails, reapers, wagons, shelf hardware, and shingles, will take care of themselves in the West. But will the Mississippi Valley take its place among the great intellectual communities of the world? Scoffers and Philistines accuse the West of having got no farther than the Pacific coast poet, who had plainly much advanced in culture

UNLOADING A MISSISSIPPI STEAMBOAT.

since he had begun by rhyming the name of the great German poet and dramatist with "teeth," and had reached the point where he made it rhyme with "boat." But if popular education, intelligence, and natural keenness make up civilization, the West is a highly civilized community; and there are many reasons for supposing that it has the conditions for a broader intellectual growth. First of all, it is freer than any other great area of the earth's surface from the trammels of an official religion; several of the coast colonies had established churches, but not one community in the Mississippi Valley except Louisiana. To be sure, as in other parts of the United States, there is an almost comical multiplication of sects. Doubtless it is wasteful to keep up several struggling churches in a little town, but the right to think out one's own theology, or to select amid various theologies, has in it elements of intellectual discipline; and from the earliest days the Western churches have been the principal centres of the intellectual life of the community.

Schools are not necessarily civilizers. The real standard of education in any community is the conduct of the average people, and in many parts of the West and South schools are still inchoate. There is a district in Kentucky where a teacher is known to have been employed who could neither read nor write; his function was to draw his district's share of the State school-fund. There have been schools on the frontier in which the only pupils were the children of the one man who lived in the district, and the teacher was their mother, while the non-resident owners of real-estate paid the school-taxes. Although country schools are already weakening by the draining of the more likely people into the towns, the district schools in the West are probably as good as those in the remote parts of New England; and the great city systems are, upon the whole, superior to those of the East. The best organization of school government in the country is that of Cleveland, and the best system of buildings is probably that of Minneapolis. Chicago public schools are more efficient than those of Philadelphia or New York, and probably than those of Boston.

In secondary education the West has

as good public high-schools as those of other parts of the country, though it has never developed a system of endowed academies in country towns, which still seem to furnish a special and much-desired training in New England.

When it comes to universities, the average provision in the West is excellent, and most of the newer States have a general system of complete government education, for the State universities have direct relations with the public schools, and are superior in equipment and prestige to the denominational colleges. Two of the greatest and most famous Western universities, Chicago and Michigan, chance to lie just outside the rim of the Mississippi Valley, but the renowned universities of Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Nebraska, and the steadily enlarging universities of Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio, show a willingness to provide at the expense of the commonwealth an education of a thoroughness and advancement which cannot be had in any Eastern State except by the payment of considerable fees to endowed universities. Almost every branch of human learning is now taught thoroughly and practically somewhere between the Appalachians and the Rockies.

Two important tests of intellectuality, though not the only ones, are art and literature. The Rookwood pottery is one of the few indigenous Western arts known at home and abroad; and though there are several art-schools, there is no school of Western art, and no such school is likely; for painters are cosmopolitan; they must be educated where there are the best collections of notable pictures. The only claim which the West has well established to artistic distinction is in architecture. Fortunately Cleveland is not within the Mississippi basin, and therefore the valley has not to weep for the confused heap of stone-cutting which has been set up there as a soldiers' monument: but most of the State of Ohio is in the Ohio Valley, and the legislature forced that abomination upon the people of Cleveland against their will. On the other hand, the city of Pittsburg has the most beautiful and suitable county buildings in the country; while the city of Boston has one of the most dreadful county buildings. Certainly no such group of magnificent structures has ever been seen in America, outside of fabled Norumbega, as the Court of Honor at the Chicago Fair.

Western literature is made up partly of books written by Western people, and partly by books about the West. Of late years there has sprung up a generation of poets and novelists who find enduring themes in the breeziness of the frontier, the monotony of the farm, and the crudity of the workman's life. A very encouraging sign is the growth of a school of historical writers who have learned the romance of the Indian hunter and the French trapper, and who insist upon arousing the public to a sense of the importance in our national history of the development of the West.

The difficulty about intellectual life in the Mississippi Valley is not so much a lack of interest in the things of the mind as a lack of local traditions. Hence in some Southern cities of feeble intellectual opportunities we find a delightful and refined society of old-fashioned people who read Shakespeare and Milton and Addison because that has for a hundred years been the right thing for respectable people to do. How can there be traditions in a city like Minneapolis, where not one adult in twenty was born in the place or perhaps in the State? The North and Northwest are now undergoing a tremendous social change through the renting of great farms to new-comers, while the owners live in villages or towns. This means that the children will not know "the old place," and the grandchildren will have not so much as a myth of the old oaken bucket. Even in old cities like Albany and Baltimore it is hard to build up a civic sentiment—a sense of gratitude to ancestors and responsibility to posterity. Perhaps as population becomes more stable this feeling will grow up in the West, but it is hard to realize the effect upon a community of such rapid changes of life that not one child in twenty will live in the house of his grandfather.

When critics say that no intellectual inventiveness can be expected in a flat and monotonous country they forget that Russia, in spite of the restraint of the censor, is one of the most active and creative of European countries. Art has

really no local habitation. Artists are trained where there are the collections of great works, and there is no more reason for a Western school of painters than for a distinct Austrian or Australian school. The application of the principle of beauty to human life grows steadily throughout the West, and attractive houses, clean streets, beautiful parks, and tasteful furniture more and more abound. Browning societies do not make culture nor nourish new poets; but none can fail to observe throughout the valley the intelligent interest in the things which make for civilization in education, in literature, in art, and in human life.

Of the continued material wealth of the Mississippi Valley there is no reason to doubt, and a political structure designed for small agricultural communities has somehow proved at least moderately successful for large States containing great cities. But for ages to come the principal output and wealth of the Mississippi Valley must be agricultural; and the greatest danger is a separation of interest between the tiller of the soil (allied, perhaps, with the workman at the forge) on the one side, and the capitalist and the professional and business man on the other side. At present the social forces are well balanced, and immigration has not brought the great dangers usually ascribed to it; but if the farms are to fall into the hands of a rent-paying peasantry, and the owners are not to live in the midst of that peasantry and to share their interests, as do the landowners in European countries, then the Mississippi Valley may yet see social contests which will make the French Revolution seem mild. The two bases of the present happiness and prosperity of that great region are—first, the intelligence, honesty, and orderliness of the average man, and secondly, the belief that the farmer and the wage-earner get a fair share of the output.

The founders of the great Western community used the plain and common rules of the life with which they were familiar; but they put into their organization a strength and vitality which have enabled it to stand under the most unexpected conditions. They founded a commonwealth for Americans which has proved adequate for people of all races; they founded country communities with constitutions which work—with some creaking—for populous States, including great cities. The greatest danger for the Mississippi Valley is the discontent of men and women upon the farms and in little villages, who feel that society takes from them to give to the manufacturer and to the city. The greatest security of the West is its widely advanced intelligence and the honesty and intelligence of the average man. The foundations of society are sound, the framework is trusty, and, so far as we can look into the future, the Mississippi Valley is destined to be the home of a great community. The Mississippi Valley is an empire because it keeps fast hold of East and West; because it is the heart and core of a great republic.

Hart, CHARLES HENRY, author; born in Philadelphia, Feb. 4, 1847; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1869. In 1893 he was appointed chairman of the committee on retrospective American art in the World's Fair exhibition. He is the author of *Historical Sketch of National Medals; Gilbert Stuart's Portraits of Women; Portraits of Washington; Browere's Life Masks of Great Americans;* and biographical works on Lincoln and Webster; *Memoirs* of William H. Prescott and George Ticknor.

Hart, JOHN, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Hopewell, N. J., in 1708; was a farmer, scantily educated, but a man of strong common-sense, patriotism, and moral excellence. He was in Congress from 1774 till 1777, and suffered much at the hands of the loyalists. He was compelled to flee from his home, and was hunted from place to place until the capture of the Hessians at Trenton (see TRENTON, BATTLE OF). He was called "honest John Hart." He died in Hopewell, in 1780.

Hart, JONATHAN, military officer; born in Kensington, Conn., in 1748; graduated at Yale in 1768; enlisted in the Continental army, serving throughout the War of the Revolution, attaining the rank of captain. After the war he entered the regular army as captain; was promoted to major. He participated in various campaigns against the Indians under Generals Scott, Harmar, and St. Clair. In the battle with the Miami Indians, while pro-

tecting the rear of the army, he and his command were overwhelmed by superior numbers and almost all were killed. He was the author of the "Native Inhabitants of the Western Country," which appeared in vol. iii. of the *Transactions of the American Society*. He died on Miami River, O., Nov. 4, 1791.

Hart, NANCY, patriot; born in Elbert county, Ga., in 1765. During the Revolutionary War she was an ardent patriot, and upon one occasion captured five British soldiers, who were pillaging her house. She concealed their arms and killed two of them who attempted to escape, and held the remaining three until she received assistance from the neighbors. She died in 1840.

Harte, FRANCIS BRET, author; born in Albany, N. Y., Aug. 25, 1839; went to California early in life and took up mining, but later engaged in newspaper work. In 1864–67 he was secretary of the United States branch mint at San Francisco, and afterwards editor of the *Overland Monthly*. In 1878 he was appointed United States consul at Crefeld, Germany, where he served two years, and held the similar office at Glasgow, Scotland, till 1885. He is the author of many works, among them *The Luck of Roaring Camp; The Outcasts of Poker Flat; The Heathen Chinee; Echoes of the Foot-Hills; Drift from Two Shores; A Waif of the Plains; In a Hollow of the Hills; Narker's Luck; Tales of Trail and Town; Mr. Jack Hanland's Meditations, and Other Stories*, etc. He died in Camberley, England, May 5, 1902.

TRINITY COLLEGE, HARTFORD.

Hartford, consolidated city and town of Connecticut, port of entry, and capital of the State; on the Connecticut River and several lines of railroads and steamers. It is one of the wealthiest cities in the United States for its size, and the greatest insurance city in the world. Among its noteworthy buildings are the State Capitol, Trinity College, Hartford Theological Seminary, Wadsworth Atheneum, American School for Deaf Mutes, Colt Memorial Church, State Armory, and many elegant residences. The State library, in the Capitol, contains pictures of the governors of the colony and State, and in the park are statues of General Putnam and Dr. Horace Wells, one of the alleged discoverers of anæsthesia, and a Soldiers' and Sailors' Memorial Arch. The city is noted also for the extent and variety of its manufactures, which include machinery, bicycles, fire-arms, motor vehicles, silk goods, drop-forgings, metal castings, cyclometers, envelopes, etc.

English emigrants from Cambridge, Mass., reached the vicinity of the present city in 1635, and in the following year a considerable number of members of the church at Cambridge (then Newtown) settled here under the leadership of the Revs. Thomas Hooker and Samuel Stone. The new settlement was first named Newtown, which was changed to its present name in honor of Stone's birthplace in England in 1637. On Jan. 14, 1639, at a gathering of the people of the towns of Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield, in Hartford, the first written American constitution was adopted, from which fact Hartford has been called "the birthplace of American democracy." The city was the capital of Connecticut till 1701, when Hartford and New Haven were each constituted capital cities, the executive officers sitting in each city alternately. In

THE CAPITOL, HARTFORD.

1873 it again became the sole capital. In 1900 the city had an assessed property valuation of about $70,000,000 and a population of 79,850. See CONNECTICUT.

Hartford Conventions. Two noteworthy conventions have been held in Hartford, Conn. The first was on Oct. 20, 1779, when the alarming depreciation of the Continental paper-money was producing great anxiety throughout the colonies. There were delegates from five of the Eastern States. They proposed a new regulation of prices, on the basis of $20 in paper for $1 in coin; and they advised a general convention at Philadelphia at the beginning of 1780, to adopt a scheme for all the colonies. Congress approved the suggestion of the convention, but urged the States to adopt the regulation at once, without waiting for a general convention.

The second, politically known as "the Hartford Convention," was convened on Dec. 15, 1814. Because the Massachusetts militia had not been placed under General Dearborn's orders, the Secretary of State, in an official letter to Governor Strong,

refused to pay the expenses of defending Massachusetts from the common foe. Similar action, for similar cause, had occurred in the case of Connecticut, and a clamor was instantly raised that New England was abandoned to the enemy by the national government. A joint committee of the legislature of Massachusetts made a report on the state of public affairs, which contained a covert threat of independent action on the part of the people of that section, saying that, in the position in which that State stood, no choice was left it but submission to the British, which was not to be thought of, and the appropriation for her own defence of those revenues derived from the people which the national government had hitherto thought proper to expend elsewhere. The report recommended a convention of delegates from sympathizing States to consider the propriety of adopting "some mode of defence suited to the circumstances and exigencies of those States," and to consult upon a radical reform in the national Constitution. The administration minority denounced this movement as a preparation for a dissolution of the Union. The report was adopted by a large majority, and the legislature addressed a circular letter to the governors of the other New England States, inviting the appointment of delegates to meet in convention at an early day, to deliberate upon "means of security and defence" against dangers to which those States were subjected by the course of the war. They also proposed the consideration of some amendments to the Constitution on the subject of slave representation. The proposition was acceded to. Hartford was the place, and Thursday, Dec. 15, 1814, the time, designated for the assembling of the convention. On that day twenty-six delegates, representing Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and Vermont, assembled and organized by the appointment of George Cabot, of Boston, as president of the body, and Theodore Dwight as secretary.

The following are brief notes concerning the delegates:

George Cabot, the president of the convention, was a descendant of one of the discoverers of the American continent of that name. He was a warm Whig during the Revolutionary struggle, and soon after the adoption of the national Constitution was chosen a Senator in Congress by the legislature of Massachusetts. He was a pure-hearted, lofty-minded citizen, a sound statesman, and a man beloved by all who knew him.

Nathan Dane was a lawyer of eminence, and was also a Whig in the days of the Revolution. He was a representative of Massachusetts in Congress during the Confederation, and was specially noticed for his services in procuring the insertion of a provision in the famous ordinance of 1787 establishing territorial governments over the territories northwest of the Ohio which forever excluded slavery from those regions. He was universally esteemed for his wisdom and integrity.

William Prescott was a son of the distinguished Colonel Prescott, of the Revolution, who was conspicuous in the battle of Bunker Hill. He was an able lawyer, first in Salem, and then in Boston. He served with distinction in both branches of the Massachusetts legislature.

Harrison Gray Otis was a native of Boston, and member of the family of that name distinguished in the Revolution. He was a lawyer by profession, and served the public in the Massachusetts legislature and in the national Congress. He was an eloquent speaker, and as a public man, as well as a private citizen, he was very popular.

Timothy Bigelow was a lawyer, and for several years speaker of the Massachusetts House of Representatives.

Joshua Thomas was judge of probate in Plymouth county, Mass., and was a man of unblemished reputation in public and private life.

Joseph Lyman was a lawyer, and for several years held the office of sheriff of his county.

George Bliss was an eminent lawyer, distinguished for his learning, industry, and integrity. He was several times a member of the Massachusetts legislature.

Daniel Waldo was a resident of Worcester, where he established himself in early life as a merchant. He was a State Senator, but would seldom consent to an election to office.

Samuel Sumner Wilde was a lawyer,

and was raised to a seat on the bench of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts.

Hodijah Baylies was an officer in the Continental army, in which he served efficiently. He was for many years judge of probate in his county, and was distinguished for sound understanding, fine talents, and unimpeachable integrity.

Stephen Longfellow, Jr., was a lawyer of eminence in Portland, Me., where he stood at the head of his profession. He was a Representative in Congress.

Chauncey Goodrich was an eminent lawyer, and for many years a member of the legislature of Connecticut, in each of its branches. He was also a member of each House of Congress, and lieutenant-governor of Connecticut. His reputation was very exalted as a pure statesman and useful citizen.

John Treadwell was in public stations in Connecticut a greater part of his life, where he was a member of each legislative branch of the government, a long time a judge of the court of common pleas, and both lieutenant-governor and governor of the State. He was a Whig in the Revolution, and a politician of the Washington school.

James Hillhouse was a man of eminent ability, and widely known. He was a lawyer of celebrity, served as a member of the legislature of Connecticut, and was for more than twenty years either a Senator or Representative in Congress. He fought bravely for his country in the Revolutionary War, and was always active, energetic, and public-spirited.

Zephaniah Swift was a distinguished lawyer. He served as speaker of the Connecticut Assembly, and was a member of Congress, a judge, and, for a number of years, chief-justice of the Supreme Court of Connecticut.

Nathaniel Smith was an extraordinary man. He was a lawyer by profession, and for many years was considered as one of the most distinguished members of his profession in Connecticut. He was a member of Congress, and a judge of the Supreme Court of Connecticut. His whole life was marked by purity of morals and love of country.

Calvin Goddard was a native of Massachusetts, but studied and practised law in Connecticut, and became a distinguished citizen of that State. He rose to great eminence in his profession, and was in Congress four years. He was repeatedly elected a member of the General Assembly, and was appointed a judge of the Supreme Court of Connecticut.

Roger Minot Sherman was another distinguished lawyer of Connecticut, and was for a long time connected with the government of that State. He was a man of the highest reputation as possessor of the qualities of a good citizen.

Daniel Lyman was a soldier of the Revolution, and rose to the rank of major in the Continental army. After the peace he settled as a lawyer in Rhode Island, where he became distinguished for talents and integrity. He was chief-justice of the Supreme Court of that State.

Samuel Ward was a son of Governor Ward, of Rhode Island, and at the age of eighteen years was a captain in the Continental army. He was with Arnold in his expedition to Quebec, in 1775. At that city he was made a prisoner. Before the close of the war he rose to the rank of colonel. He was elected a member of the convention held at Annapolis, Md., in 1786, which was the inception of the convention that framed the national Constitution.

Benjamin Hazard was a native of Rhode Island, and a lawyer, in which profession he was eminent. He served for many years in the legislature of his State.

Edward Manton was a native of Rhode Island, and rarely mingled in the political discussions of his day. He was a man of sterling worth in every relation in life.

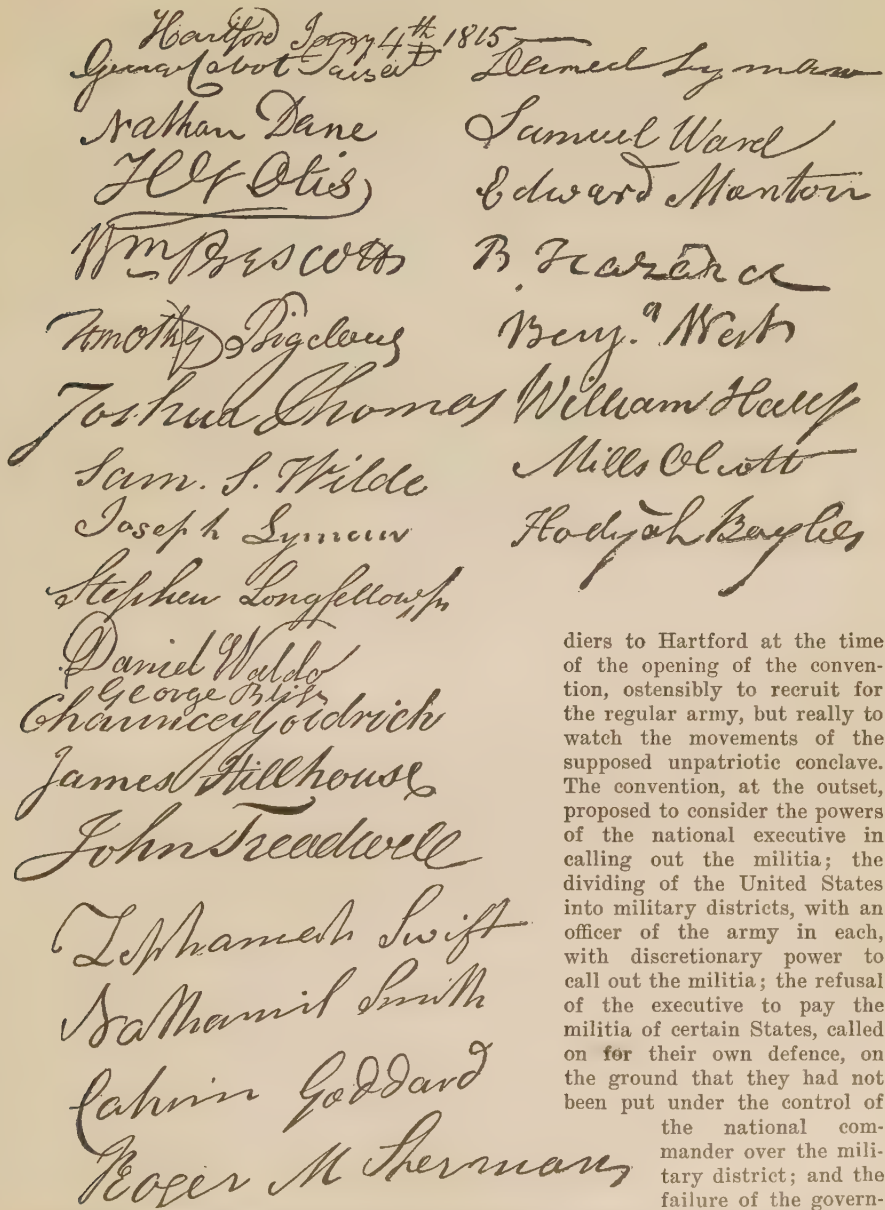
Benjamin West was a native of New Hampshire, and a lawyer by profession, in which he had a good reputation.

Mills Olcott was a native of New Hampshire, and a son of Chief-Justice Olcott, of that State. He was a lawyer by profession.

William Hall, Jr., was a native of Vermont. His business was that of a merchant, and he was frequently a member of the State legislature. He was universally esteemed and respected by all good men.

The sessions of the convention, held with closed doors, continued three weeks. Much alarm had been created at the seat of the United States government by the convention, especially because the Massa-

chusetts legislature, at about that time, appropriated $1,000,000 towards the support of 10,000 men to relieve the militia in service, and to be, like the militia, under the State's control. All sorts of wild rumors, suggesting treason, were set afloat, and the government sent Maj. Thomas S. Jesup with a regiment of soldiers to Hartford at the time of the opening of the convention, ostensibly to recruit for the regular army, but really to watch the movements of the supposed unpatriotic conclave. The convention, at the outset, proposed to consider the powers of the national executive in calling out the militia; the dividing of the United States into military districts, with an officer of the army in each, with discretionary power to call out the militia; the refusal of the executive to pay the militia of certain States, called on for their own defence, on the ground that they had not been put under the control of the national commander over the military district; and the failure of the government to pay the mili-



FAC-SIMILE OF THE SIGNATURES TO THE REPORT OF THE HARTFORD CONVENTION.

tia admitted to have been in the United States service; the proposition for a conscription; a bill before Congress for classifying and drafting the militia; the expenditure of the revenue of the nation in offensive operations on neighboring provinces; and the failure of the United States government to provide for the common defence, and the consequent necessity of separate States defending themselves. A committee, appointed Dec. 20, reported a "general project of such measures" as might be proper for the convention to adopt; and on the 24th it was agreed that it would be expedient for it to prepare a general statement of the unconstitutional attempts of the executive government of the United States to infringe upon the rights of the individual States in regard to the military, etc., and to recommend to the legislatures of the States the adoption of the most effectual and decisive measures to protect the militia and the States from the usurpations contained in those proceedings. Also to prepare a statement concerning the general subject of State defences, and a recommendation that an application be made to the national government for an arrangement with the States by which they would be allowed to retain a portion of the taxes levied by Congress, to be devoted to the expenses of self-defence, etc. They also proposed amendments to the Constitution to accomplish the restriction of the powers of Congress to declare and make war, admit new States into the Union, lay embargoes, limit the Presidency to one term, and alterations concerning slave representation and taxation.

The convention adopted a report and resolutions in accordance with the sentiments indicated by the scope of the deliberations. These were signed by all the delegates present, and ordered to be laid before the legislatures of the respective States represented in the convention. The report and resolutions were moderate but firm, able in construction, and forcible though heretical in argument and conclusion. The labors of the Hartford Convention ended on Jan. 4, 1815, and after prayer on the morning of the 5th that body adjourned, but with the impression on the part of some of the members that circumstances might require them to reassemble. For that reason the seal of secrecy on their proceedings was not removed. This gave wide scope for conjecture, suspicion, and misrepresentation, some declaring that the proceedings were patriotic, and others that they were treasonable in the extreme. Their report was immediately published throughout the country. It disappointed radical Federalists and suspicious Democrats; yet, because the members of the convention belonged to the party to which the peace faction adhered, they incurred much odium, and for many years the term "Hartford Convention Federalists" conveyed much reproach.

HANDBILL ISSUED BY DEMOCRATIC PARTY.

At the next election in Massachusetts the Administration, or Democratic, party issued a handbill with an engraving indicative of the character of the opposing parties—the Federal party was represented by the devil, crowned, holding a flaming torch, and pointing to British coin on the ground; the Democratic party by a comely young woman representing Liberty, with an eagle beside her, holding in one hand the Phryg-

ian bonnet on a staff, and in the other a palm-leaf. The cut on preceding page is a copy of the engraving on a reduced scale.

Hartley, DAVID, politician; born in England in 1729; educated at Oxford, he became a member of Parliament, in which he was always distinguished by liberal views. He opposed the American war, and was appointed one of the British commissioners to treat for peace with Franklin at Paris. He was one of the first advocates in the House of Commons for the abolition of the slave-trade, and was an ingenious inventor. He died in Bath, England, Dec. 19, 1813.

Hartley, THOMAS, military officer; born in Reading, Pa., Sept. 7, 1748; became a lawyer and practised in York, Pa.; served in the Continental army; was made colonel of the 6th Pennsylvania Regiment in 1776, and two years later commanded the expedition which burned the settlements and killed many of the Indians who had taken part in the Wyoming massacre; was a member of Congress from Pennsylvania in 1789–1800. He died in York, Pa., Dec. 21, 1800.

Hartranft, JOHN FREDERICK, military officer; born in New Hanover, Montgomery co., Pa., Dec. 16, 1830; graduated at Union College in 1853, and admitted to the bar in 1859. He commanded the 4th Pennsylvania (three months) regiment; then organized the 51st Pennsylvania Regiment, and as its colonel accompanied Burnside's expedition to North Carolina early in 1862. He was in all the operations of that corps (the 9th), and was made brigadier-general in May, 1864. At Antietam he led the famous charge that carried the lower bridge (see ANTIETAM, BATTLE OF), and was in command of the division of the 9th Corps that gallantly recaptured Fort Steadman, before Petersburg, in March, 1865, for which he was brevetted major-general. He was elected governor of Pennsylvania in 1872 and 1875; pursued a vigorous policy during the great railroad strikes in July, 1877; was appointed major-general commanding the State militia in 1879; and was afterwards postmaster and collector of the port in Philadelphia. He died in Norristown, Pa., Oct. 17, 1889.

Hartstene, HENRY J., naval officer; born in North Carolina; joined the navy in 1828; promoted commander in 1855; and was ordered to the Arctic region to search for Dr. Kane, whom he rescued with his party. In 1861 he resigned his commission and joined the Confederate navy, but in the following year he became insane. He died in Paris, France, March 31, 1868.

Hartsuff, GEORGE LUCAS, military officer; born in Tyre, N. Y., May 28, 1830; graduated at West Point in 1852, and served first in Texas and Florida. In 1856 he was assistant instructor in artillery and infantry tactics at West Point. He was made assistant adjutant-general, with the rank of captain, in March, 1861; served at Fort Pickens from April till July, 1861, and then in western Virginia, under General Rosecrans. In April, 1862, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and commanded Abercrombie's brigade in the battles of Cedar Mountain, Manassas, and Antietam, receiving a severe wound in the latter engagement. In November he was promoted to major-general; and in the spring of 1863 was sent to Kentucky, where he commanded the 23d Corps. He was in command of the works at Bermuda Hundred in the siege of Petersburg, 1864–65. In March, 1865, he was brevetted major-general in the United States army; in 1867–71 was adjutant-general of the 5th Military Division and of the Division of the Missouri; and in the latter year was retired because of his wounds. He died in New York City, May 16, 1874.

Harvard, JOHN, philanthropist and founder of Harvard College; born in Southwark, England, in November, 1607; graduated at Emanuel College, Cambridge, in 1635; emigrated to Massachusetts, where he was made a freeman, in 1637, and in Charlestown became a preacher of the Gospel. He bequeathed one-half of £1,500 for the founding of a college, and also left to the institution his library of 320 volumes. He died in Charlestown, Mass., Sept. 14, 1638.

Harvard University, the first of the higher seminaries of learning established in America. The general court of Massachusetts had made some provisions towards educating a succession of learned

ministers. They had established a school at Newtown, the name of which was changed to Cambridge, in honor of the university at which most of the Massachusetts ministers had been educated. John Harvard endowed the school in his will. The school was erected into a college, and named, in honor of its benefactor, Harvard College. Henry Dunster, a Hebrew scholar just arrived in the colony, was chosen its first president. A class began a collegiate course of study in 1638, and nine graduated in 1642. Efforts were made to educate Indians for teachers, but only one ever graduated. In 1642 the general management of the temporalities of the institution was intrusted to a board of trustees, and in 1650 the general court granted it a charter, with the title, "President and Fellows of Harvard College." The profits of the ferry between Boston and Charlestown were given to the college; the town of Cambridge voted it several parcels of land, and the colonial and State legislatures of Massachusetts made annual grants until 1814, when the practice ceased. The first honorary degree of Doctor of Divinity was given to Increase Mather in 1692, and a few years afterwards Harvard received the first of a series of munificent

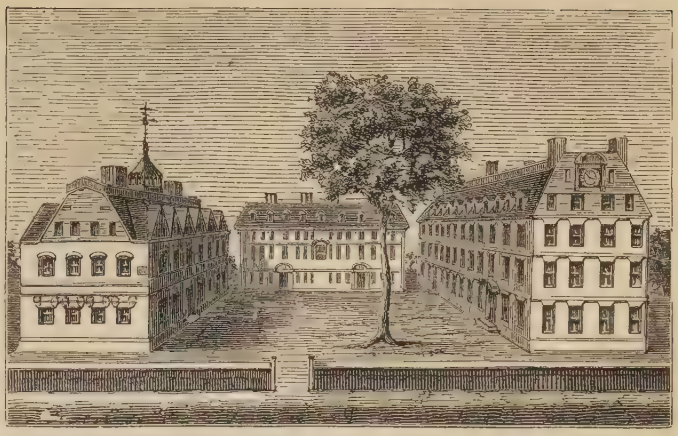
SEAL OF HARVARD.

gifts from the Hollis family, including valuable books. Its library was destroyed by fire in 1766, and about 6,000 volumes were lost, including those of the founder.

Although the institution has become a university, it retains for its legal name and academic department the title of Harvard College. In 1903 it reported 534 professors and instructors; 5,966 students in all departments; 26,088

THE CAMPUS, HARVARD.

graduates; 607,100 volumes in its libraries; $1,500,000 invested in scientific apparatus; $5,300,000 in grounds and buildings, and $15,863,522 in productive funds; and $1,436,293 in total income. The university occupies over 500 acres in Cambridge and Boston, and has twenty-five buildings, mostly forming a large quadrangle in a college yard of more than 15 acres, all large and ornate structures. See RADCLIFFE COLLEGE.



HARVARD COLLEGE IN 1720.
(From an old print.)

PRESIDENTS OF HARVARD.

Name.	Term of office.	Remarks.
Rev. Henry Dunster..	1640 to 1654	Forced to resign.
" Charles Chauncy.	1654 " 1672	Died in office.
" Leonard Hoar...	1672 " 1675	Obliged to resign.
" Urlah Oakes.....	1675 " 1681	Not formally installed until 1680.
" John Rogers.....	1682 " 1684	Died in office.
" Increase Mather.	1685 " 1701	
" Samuel Willard..	1701 " 1707	Vice-president until his death
" John Leverett...	1707 " 1724	Died in office.
" Benj. Wadsworth	1725 " 1737	" " "
" Edward Holyoke.	1737 " 1769	" " "
" Samuel Locke...	1770 " 1773	Resigned.
" Samuel Langdon.	1774 " 1780	"
" Joseph Willard..	1781 " 1804	Died in office. Salary $1,400 a year.
" Samuel Webber..	1806 " 1810	Died in office.
" John T. Kirkland	1810 " 1828	Resigned.
" Josiah Quincy...	1829 " 1845	Wrote a history of the college up to 1840.
Edward Everett.....	1846 " 1849	
Jared Sparks.....	1849 " 1853	
James Walker.....	1853 " 1860	
Cornelius C. Felton...	1860 " 1862	Died in office.
Thomas Hill.....	1862 " 1868	
Charles W. Eliot.....	1869	

Harvey, SIR JOHN, colonial governor; appointed governor of Virginia in 1627; arrived there in 1629; and served till 1635, when he was impeached by the Assembly. Failing to pacify his opponents, he returned to England, where his case was examined by the privy council, and he was restored to his office, where he remained till 1639.

Hascall, MILO SMITH, military officer; born in Le Roy, N. Y., Aug. 5, 1829; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1852. He captured the first Confederate flag at Philippi, Va., June 21, 1861; participated in many important actions; and was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers in April, 1862. He died in Chicago, Ill., Aug. 30, 1904.

Haseltine, JAMES HENRY, sculptor; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Nov. 2, 1833; joined the National army in 1861; was promoted major. His works include *America Honoring Her Fallen Brave; America Victorious; Captivity;* etc.; and statues of Generals Sheridan, Forsyth, Merritt, Hartsuff, Duryée, etc.

Hassard, JOHN ROSE GREENE, journalist; born in New York City, Sept. 4, 1836; graduated at St. John's College, New York, in 1855; served as editor and writer for several papers. He was the author of *History of the United States* (for schools). He died in New York City, April 18, 1888.

Hassler, FERDINAND RUDOLPH, scientist; born at Aernen, Switzerland, Oct. 6, 1770; came to the United States about 1807; was professor of mathematics at West Point in 1807–10; and in 1811 was sent to Europe to procure implements and standards of measure for use in the projected coast survey (see COAST AND GEODETIC SURVEY, UNITED STATES). He began that survey in July, 1816, and left it in April, 1818, but resumed it in 1832, and continued its superintendent until his death, in Philadelphia, Nov. 20, 1843. Professor Hassler made valuable

contributions to the *American Philosophical Transactions*, and in 1832 a report to the United States Senate on weights and measures. His name has been given to one of the coast-survey steamers.

Haswell, CHARLES HAYNES, engineer; born in New York, May 22, 1809; was engaged for many years in designing engines and boilers for the United States Navy; and was engineer-in-chief in 1836–51. He is a member of the leading institutes of civil engineers and naval architects of the world.

Hatch, JOHN PORTER, military officer; born in Oswego, N. Y., Jan. 9, 1822; graduated at West Point in 1845; served under General Scott in Mexico. In September, 1861, he was made a brigadier-general of volunteers, and assigned to a cavalry brigade under General King. He commanded the cavalry of the 5th Corps in the campaign in the Shenandoah Valley in the early part of 1862. In July he took command of an infantry brigade, and in August that of King's division. He was wounded at Manassas, and at South Mountain. He also commanded forces on John's Island, near Charleston, S. C., in July, 1864, and commanded the coast division of the Department of the South from November, 1864, to February, 1865. He co-operated with Sherman while moving through the Carolinas. He was brevetted major-general of volunteers, March 13, 1865; commissioned colonel of the 2d Cavalry in 1881; and retired Jan. 9, 1886. He died in New York City, April 12, 1901.

Hatchee, BATTLE AT. After the repulse of the Confederates from Corinth, Oct. 4, 1862, Rosecrans gave his troops rest until next morning, when he ordered a vigorous pursuit of the fugitives. General McPherson, who had arrived with fresh troops, led in the chase, and followed the Confederates 15 miles that day. Meanwhile, a division under General Hurlbut, which had been sent to attack the Confederate rear or intercept their retreat, had met the head of Van Dorn's column, near Pocahontas, on the morning of the 5th, and was driving it back across the Hatchee River, towards Corinth, when General Ord, who ranked Hurlbut, came up and took the command. A severe battle ensued near the waters of the Hatchee, where the Confederates lost two batteries and 300 men. Ord fell, severely wounded. Hurlbut resumed command, but did not pursue, for his force was inferior. The greater portion of the National army followed the fugitives to Ripley, where the pursuit ended.

Hatcher's Run, BATTLE OF. On Sun-

HATCHER'S RUN.

day morning, Feb. 5, 1865, a strong flanking column of Nationals moved on the right of the lines of the Confederates at Petersburg, beyond Hatcher's Run, to strike the South-side Railway. The entire National army in front of Petersburg had received marching orders to meet whatever might be developed by the movement. This flanking movement was led by Warren's and Humphrey's corps, and Gregg's cavalry. The cavalry moved down the Jerusalem Plank-road to Reams's Station. The divisions of Ayres, Griffin, and Crawford, of Warren's corps, moved along another road, while portions of Humphrey's corps (Mott's and Smyth's divisions) moved along still another road, with instructions to fall upon the right of the Confederate works on Hatcher's Run, while Warren should move around to the flank and strike the rear of their adversaries. The cavalry had pushed on from Reams's Station to Dinwiddie Court-house, encountering Wade Hampton's cavalry, dismounted and intrenched. A division of Humphrey's corps carried the Confederate works on Hatcher's Run, making the passage of it safe for the Nationals. The latter cast up temporary earthworks, which were assailed in the afternoon, the Confederates pressing through a tangled swamp. They were repulsed. The Nationals lost about 300 men; their antagonists a few more. Warren's corps took position on the left of Humphrey's during the night, and the cavalry were recalled. Two other corps were disposed so as to assist, if necessary. Towards noon (Feb. 6), Crawford, moving towards Dabney's Mills, met and fought the Confederates under Pegram. The latter were repulsed, but finally the Nationals were pushed back with heavy loss. Then the Confederates attacked Humphrey's corps, and were repulsed in disorder. The Nationals were rallied behind intrenchments and stood firm, and made a permanent extension of Grant's line to Hatcher's Run. The City Point Railroad was extended to that stream. In the battle at Hatcher's Run the Nationals lost nearly 2,000 men; the Confederates, 1,000. General Pegram was killed.

Hatfield, Edwin Francis, clergyman; born in Elizabethtown, N. J., Jan. 9, 1807; graduated at Middlebury College in 1829; pastor of Presbyterian churches in New York City and St. Louis, Mo., till 1863, and afterwards held important offices in connection with his Church. His publications include *History of Elizabeth, N. J.; The New York Observer Year-Book,* etc. He died in Summit, N. J., Sept. 22, 1883.

Hatteras, Forts at. In the summer of 1861 the Confederates built two forts on Hatteras Island, off the coast of North Carolina, to guard the entrance to Hatteras Inlet, through which blockade-runners had begun to carry supplies to the Confederates. Gen. Benjamin F. Butler, then in command at Fort Monroe, proposed sending a land and naval force against these forts. It was done. An expedition composed of eight transports and war-ships, under the command of Commodore Stringham, and bearing about 900 land-troops, under the command of General Butler, left Hampton Roads for Hatteras Inlet on Aug. 20. On the morning of the 28th the war-ships opened their guns on the forts (Hatteras and Clark), and some of the troops were landed. The warships of the expedition were the *Minnesota* (flag-ship), *Pawnee, Harriet Lane, Monticello, Wabash, Cumberland,* and *Susquehanna.* The condition of the surf made the landing difficult, and only about 300 men got on shore. The forts were under the command of the Confederate Maj. W. S. G. Andrews, and a small Confederate naval force, lying in Pamlico Sound, was in charge of Samuel Barron. An assault by both arms of the service began on the 28th, and was kept up until the next day, when the forts were surrendered. Not one of the Nationals was injured; the Confederates lost twelve or fifteen killed and thirty-five wounded. The number of troops surrendered, including officers, was 715, and with these, 1,000 stands of arms, thirty-one pieces of cannon, vessels with cotton and stores, and considerable gunpowder. The victorious expedition returned to Hampton Roads, when General Wool, who had succeeded General Butler in command there, issued a stirring order, announcing the victory. It was a severe blow to the Confederates, and led to important results. Colonel Hawkins, with

INTERIOR OF FORT HATTERAS.

a portion of his 9th New York (Zouave) Regiment, was sent to garrison the forts at Hatteras, and hold the island and inlet.

Hatton, FRANK; born in Cambridge, O., April 28, 1846. On the outbreak of the Civil War he enlisted in the 98th Ohio Infantry; subsequently received a commission as first lieutenant. At the close of the war he removed to Iowa, where he conducted the Burlington *Hawkeye*. In 1884 he was appointed Postmaster-General, having served three years previously as Assistant Postmaster-General. He died in Washington, D. C., April 30, 1894.

Havana. See CUBA.

Haven, SAMUEL FORSTER, archæologist; born in Dedham, Mass., May 28, 1806; graduated at Amherst College in 1826; became a lawyer, and practised in Dedham and Lowell. His published addresses include a *Centennial Address; Records of the Company of the Massachusetts Bay to the Embarkation of Winthrop and his Associates for New England; History of Grants under the Great Council for New England*, etc.; and his longer works include *Archæology of the United States;* and an edition of Thomas's *History of Printing in America*. He died in Worcester, Mass., Sept. 5, 1881.

Haverhill, MASSACRE AT. After the attack upon DEERFIELD (*q. v.*), Hertel de Rouville, willing to lead his motley band in the work of murdering helpless women and children, ascended the St. Francis, and, passing the White Mountains, made their rendezvous at Winnipiseogee, where they expected to meet a party of Abenakes. Disappointed in this, they descended the Merrimac to Haverhill, a little cluster of thirty cottages and log cabins, in the centre of which was a new meeting-house. On the night of Aug. 29, 1708, when every family was slumbering, this band of savages rested near, and at daylight the next morning fell with fury upon the startled sleepers of the village. The mid-day sun shone on a charred village, strewn with murdered men, women, and children. Hearing of these cruelties, Col. Peter Schuyler, of Albany, wrote to Vaudreuil, governor of Canada: "I hold it my duty towards God and my neighbors to prevent, if possible, these barbarous and

heathen cruelties. My heart swells with indignation when I think that a war between Christian provinces, bound to the exactest laws of honor and generosity, which their noble ancestors have illustrated by brilliant examples, is degenerating into a savage and boundless butchery. These are not the methods for terminating the war. Would that all the world thought with me on this subject!"

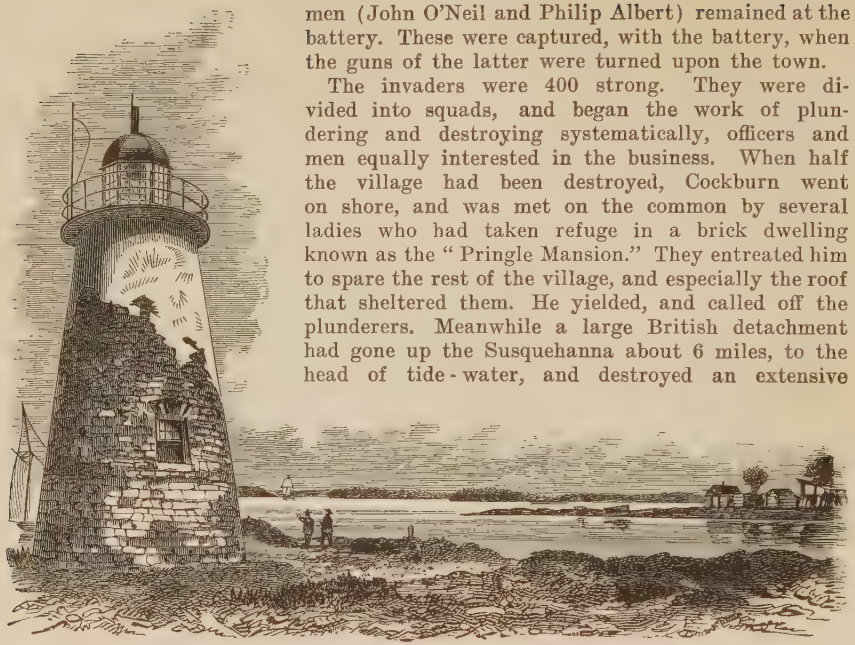
Haviland, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Ireland in 1718; served in the British army at Carthagena and Porto Bello; and was aide to General Blakeney in suppressing the rebellion of 1745. He was lieutenant-colonel under Loudon in America (1757); served with Abercrombie at Ticonderoga (1758), and under Amherst (1759–60), entering Montreal with the latter officer in September, 1760. He was senior brigadier-general and second in command at the reduction of Martinique in 1762, and at the siege of Havana. He was made lieutenant-general in 1772, and general in 1783, and died Sept. 16, 1784.

Havre de Grace, ATTACK ON. In 1813 Havre de Grace was a small village 2 miles above the head of Chesapeake Bay, and near the mouth of the Susquehanna River, containing about sixty houses, mostly built of wood. It was on the post-road between Philadelphia and Baltimore, as it now is upon the railway between the two cities. On the night of May 2, 1813, Sir George Cockburn, commander of a British squadron, engaged in marauding on the shores of Chesapeake Bay, approached the village, and at dawn on the morning of the 3d the inhabitants were awakened by the sound of arms. Fifteen

VILLAGE OF HAVERHILL, SCENE OF THE MASSACRE.

men (John O'Neil and Philip Albert) remained at the battery. These were captured, with the battery, when the guns of the latter were turned upon the town.

The invaders were 400 strong. They were divided into squads, and began the work of plundering and destroying systematically, officers and men equally interested in the business. When half the village had been destroyed, Cockburn went on shore, and was met on the common by several ladies who had taken refuge in a brick dwelling known as the "Pringle Mansion." They entreated him to spare the rest of the village, and especially the roof that sheltered them. He yielded, and called off the plunderers. Meanwhile a large British detachment had gone up the Susquehanna about 6 miles, to the head of tide-water, and destroyed an extensive



HAVRE DE GRACE.

iron and cannon foundry. A number of vessels there, which had escaped from the bay, were saved by being scuttled and sunk. After the lapse of four hours, when

or twenty barges, filled with armed men, were seen approaching, when a few lingering militia opened heavy guns upon them from a battery on an eminence called Point Comfort. These were answered by grape-shot from the British. The drums in the village beat to arms. The affrighted inhabitants, half-dressed, rushed to the streets, the non-combatants flying in terror to places of safety. Very soon hissing Congreve rockets set buildings on fire in the town, and these were followed by more destructive bomb-shells. While panic and fire were raging, the British landed. All but eight or ten of the militia had fled from the village, and only two

THE PRINGLE HOUSE.

forty of the sixty houses in the village were destroyed, and nearly every other edifice injured, the marauders assembled in their vessels in the stream, and at sunset sailed out into the bay to pay a similar visit to villages on Sassafras River. Havre de Grace was at least $60,000 poorer when the invaders left than when they came.

HAWAII

Hawaii, Hawaiian Islands, or Sandwich Islands, a group of eight large islands and some islets in the North Pacific Ocean, on the border of the tropics, something over 2,000 miles southwest of San Francisco. Hawaii is by far the largest of the group, and Oahu contains the capital, Honolulu. These islands are mountainous, containing several well-known volcanoes, and are remarkably productive. Sugar leads as an article of export, followed by rice, bananas, and hides. The area is 6,640 square miles, and the population in 1900 was 154,001. About one-half of this number were natives or half-castes; there were several thousands each of Chinese, Japanese, and Portuguese; while the American, British, and German contingents, though smaller, were, of course, very influential.

Discovered by Captain Cook in 1778, this former island kingdom in 1819 renounced in form idolatry, and received American missionaries in 1820. A constitution was granted in 1840, and revised in 1852.

In 1853 King Kamehameha expressed an earnest desire to have his domain attached to the United States. This was a matter of great moment, for these islands were to become of much importance in the commercial operations in the Pacific Ocean. A large majority of the white people there were Americans by birth, and the government, in all essential operations, was controlled by Americans, notwithstanding the ostensible ruler was a native sovereign. The consuls of England and France there, when they perceived a disposition on the part of the reigning monarch to have his kingdom annexed to the United States, charged the scheme to certain American missionaries, and officially protested against their alleged conduct. They declared that France and England would not remain indifferent spectators of such a transaction. The missionaries and the United States commissioners there dis-

A BIT OF HONOLULU, FROM THE HARBOR.

claimed any tampering with the native authorities. At the same time the latter, in a published reply to the protest, denied the right of any foreign government to interfere in the matter, if the transaction should be mutually agreeable to the king and the government of the United States. Preliminary negotiations were commenced, and a treaty was actually agreed upon, when the king died (Dec. 15, 1854). His son and successor, Prince Alexander Liholiho, immediately on his accession to the throne, ordered the discontinuance of the negotiations with the United States for annexation. The subject was not revived until the visit of Emma, queen of the islands, to the United States and England, in 1866, and was soon afterwards entirely dismissed.

A ROAD IN HONOLULU.

In 1891 Queen Liliuokalani succeeded to the throne. At that time the sovereign and cabinet held the executive power, and the legislature consisted of a house of twenty-four nobles and a house of twenty-four representatives. The greater portion of the trade was with the United States, and a reciprocity treaty, admitting Hawaiian sugar free, had formerly existed. At this time Benjamin Harrison was President, James G. Blaine Secretary of State, and John L. Stevens was the United States minister to Hawaii. The queen was not in sympathy with the Reform party, which had been successful in the revolution of 1887. On Jan. 15, 1893, she attempted to proclaim a new constitution in the direction of absolute power. This was opposed by the ministers. A committee of safety was formed, and a provisional government organized, which, on Jan. 17, deposed the queen. SANFORD B. DOLE (*q. v.*) was at the head of the provisional government. While these events were occurring, the United States cruiser *Boston* reached Honolulu, and her commander, Captain Wiltse, landed 300 marines and sailors. It is disputed whether the revolution was accomplished independently of the aid and encouragement offered by Minister Stevens and the American forces. The queen immediately issued a protest, declaring that she yielded "to the superior force of the United States of America," and that she waited "until such time as the government of the United States shall, upon facts being presented to it, undo the acts of its representatives, and reinstate me." She despatched agents to the United States, and the provisional government sent commissioners to negotiate a treaty of annexation.

In the United States these events naturally created great excitement. President Harrison's government arranged with the Hawaiian commissioners a treaty of annexation, which was submitted to the Senate; but the close of the administration was at hand, and the matter was left for a new Congress and President.

The official record up to this time includes the following documents:

THE PRESIDENT TO THE SENATE.

"I transmit herewith, with a view to its ratification, a treaty of annexation, concluded on Feb. 14, 1893, between John

W. Foster, Secretary of State, who was duly empowered to act in that behalf on the part of the United States, and Lorrin A. Thurston, W. R. Castle, W. C. Wilder, C. L. Carter, and Joseph Marsden, the commissioners on the part of the government of the Hawaiian Islands.

"The provisional treaty, it will be observed, does not attempt to deal in detail with the questions that grow out of the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands to the United States. The commissioners representing the Hawaiian government have consented to leave to the future and to the just and benevolent purposes of the United States the adjustment of all such questions.

"I do not deem it necessary to discuss at any length the conditions which have resulted in this decisive action. It has been the policy of the administration not only to respect but to encourage the continuance of an independent government in the Hawaiian Islands, so long as it afforded suitable guarantees for the protection of life and property and maintained a stability and strength that gave adequate security against the domination of any other power. The moral support of this government has continually manifested itself in the most friendly diplomatic relations, and in many acts of courtesy to the Hawaiian rulers. The overthrow of the monarchy was not in any way prompted by this government, but had its origin in what seems to have been a reactionary and revolutionary policy on the part of Queen Liliuokalani, which put in serious peril not only the large and preponderating interests of the United States in the islands, but all foreign interests and, indeed, the decent administration of civil affairs and the peace of the islands.

"It is quite evident that the monarchy had become effete and the queen's government so weak and inadequate as to be the prey of designing and unscrupulous persons. The restoration of Queen Liliuokalani to her throne is undesirable, if not

A HOSPITAL IN HONOLULU.

impossible, and unless actively supported by the United States would be accompanied by a serious disaster and the disorganization of all business interests. The influence and interest of the United States in the islands must be increased and not diminished. Only two courses are now open—one, the establishment of a protectorate by the United States, and the other, annexation full and complete. I think the latter course, which has been adopted in the treaty, will be highly promotive of the best interests of the Hawaiian people, and is the only one that will adequately secure the interests of the United States.

"These interests are not wholly selfish. It is essential that none of the other great powers shall secure these islands. Such a possession would not consist with our safety and with the peace of the world. This view of the situation is so apparent and conclusive that no protest has been heard from any government against proceedings looking to annexation. Every foreign representative at Honolulu promptly acknowledged the provisional government, and I think there is a general concurrence in the opinion that the deposed queen ought not to be restored.

"Prompt action upon this treaty is very desirable. If it meets the approval of the Senate, peace and good order will be secured in the islands under existing laws until such time as Congress can provide by legislation a permanent form of government for the islands. This legislation should be, and I do not doubt will be, not only just to the natives and all other residents and citizens of the islands, but be characterized by great liberality and a high regard to the rights of all people and of all foreigners domiciled there.

"The correspondence which accompanies the treaty will put the Senate in possession of all the facts known to the executive. "BENJAMIN HARRISON.

"EXECUTIVE MANSION, WASHINGTON, *Feb. 15, 1893.*"

LETTER OF THE SECRETARY OF STATE.

"*To the President:*

"The undersigned, Secretary of State, has the honor to lay before the President, with a view to obtaining the advice and consent of the Senate thereto, should such a course be, in the judgment of the President, for the public interest, a treaty, signed at Washington on Feb. 14, by the undersigned and the accredited commissioners of the existing provisional government of the Hawaiian Islands, in representation of their respective governments, for the full and absolute cession of the said islands and all their dependencies to the United States forever, with provision for the temporary government of these islands under the sovereign authority of the United States, until Congress shall otherwise enact. With this treaty the undersigned submits to the President copies of the correspondence recently exchanged, showing the course of events in the Hawaiian Islands as respects the overthrow of the late monarchical form of government, the creation of a provisional government thereof in the name of the Hawaiian people, the recognition of the same by the representatives there of the United States and of all other powers, the despatch of a commission to the capital to negotiate for a union of the government of the Hawaiian Islands with the government of the United States, and the outcome of those negotiations in the treaty herewith submitted.

"The change of government in the Hawaiian Islands, thus chronicled, was entirely unexpected so far as this government was concerned. It is true that for some months past the Hawaiian press and the advices received from the diplomatic and consular representatives at Honolulu indicated political uncertainty, party intrigues, and legislative opposition, but not more so than at many times in the past history of the islands, and certainly not suggestive of any overthrow of the monarchy through popular resistance to the unconstitutional acts of the late sovereign. At no time had Mr. Stevens been instructed with regard to his course in the event of a revolutionary uprising. The well-established policy of this government, maintained on many occasions from its earliest establishment, to hold relations with any *de facto* government in possession of the effective power of the state, and having the acquiescence of the governed, being ample to meet unforeseen contingencies, no instructions in this

specific sense were indeed necessary; and the minister, without explicit instructions, was expected and constrained to use his best judgment, in accordance with fundamental precedent, as the emergency should arise.

"The change was, in fact, abrupt and unlooked for by the United States minister or the naval commander. At a moment of apparent tranquillity, when the political excitement and controversy of the immediately preceding three months had been to all appearances definitely allayed, and when, as appears from despatches from the minister and from the commanding officer of the *Boston*, a settlement of differences seemed to have been reached, Minister Stevens quitted the capital for a brief excursion of ten days to a neighboring island on the *Boston*, the only naval vessel of the United States at the islands. On returning to Honolulu, on Jan. 14, the crisis was found to be in full vigor and to have already reached proportions which made inevitable either the success of Queen Liliuokalani's attempt to subvert the constitution by force or the downfall of the monarchy.

"On Saturday, Jan. 14, the capital was wholly controlled by the royal troops, including a large additional force of over 500 armed men, not authorized by Hawaiian law. On the same day the first call to arms in opposition to the queen was issued, and the citizens' committee of safety was developed. During the 14th, 15th, and most of the 16th, the two parties confronted each other in angry hostility, with every indication of an armed conflict at any moment. It was not until late in the afternoon of Monday, the 16th, after requests for protection had been made by many citizens of the United States residing in Honolulu, that a force of marines was landed from the *Boston* by direction of the minister, and in conformity with the standing instructions which, for many years, have authorized the naval forces of the United States to co-operate with the minister for the protection of the lives and property of American citizens in case of imminent disorder.

"The marines when landed took no part whatever towards influencing the course of events. Their presence was wholly precautionary, and only such disposition was made of them as was calculated to subserve the particular end in view. They were distributed that night between the legation and the consulate, where they occupied inner courts and a private hall rented for their accommodation. Beyond a sentry at the door of each post and the occasional appearance of an officer passing from one post to another, no demonstration whatever was made by the landed forces, nor was the uniform of the United States visible upon the streets. They thus remained, isolated and inconspicuous, until after the success of the provisional government and the organization of an adequate protective force thereunder.

"At the time the provisional government took possession of the government buildings no troops or officers of the United States were present or took any part whatever in the proceedings. No public recognition was accorded to the provisional government by the United States minister until after the queen's abdication, and when they were in effective possession of the government buildings, the archives, the treasury, the barracks, the police station, and all the potential machinery of government.

"Then, and not until then, when the provisional government had obtained full *de facto* control, was the new order of things recognized by the United States minister, whose formal letter of recognition was promptly followed by like action on the part of the representatives of all foreign governments resident on the Hawaiian Islands. There is not the slightest indication that at any time prior to such formal recognition, in full accord with the long-established rule and invariable precedents of this government, did the United States minister take any part in promoting the change, either by intimidating the queen or by giving assurance of support to the organizers of the provisional government.

"The immediate cause of the change is clearly seen to have been the unconstitutional, intemperate acts of the queen herself in attempting to coerce her responsible ministers and to annul the existing constitution and replace it arbitrarily by another of her own choice.

"The provisional government of the Hawaiian Islands is, by all usual and proper tests, in the sole and supreme possession

of power and in control of all the resources of the Hawaiian nation, not only through the queen's formal submission, but through its possession of all the armed forces, arms, and ammunitions, public offices, and administration of law, unopposed by any adherents of the late government.

"On the 1st inst., subsequent to the departure of the Hawaiian special commissioners, the United States minister at Honolulu, at the request of the provisional government, placed the Hawaiian government under the protection of the United States, to insure the security of life and property during the pending negotiations at Washington, and without interfering with the administration of public affairs by the said government. An instruction has been sent to the minister, commending his action in so far as it lay within the purview of standing instructions to the legation and to the naval commanders of the United States in Hawaiian waters, and tended to co-operate with the administration of affairs by the provisional government, but disavowing any steps in excess of such instructions, whereby the authority and power of the United States might appear to have been asserted to the impairment of the independent sovereignty of the Hawaiian government by the assumption of a formal protectorate.

"In this condition of things the five commissioners named by the provisional government of the Hawaiian Islands reached Washington on the 3d inst., bearing authentic letters from the Hawaiian government accrediting them to the President, and conferring upon them full powers to negotiate for the union of the Hawaiian Islands to the United States.

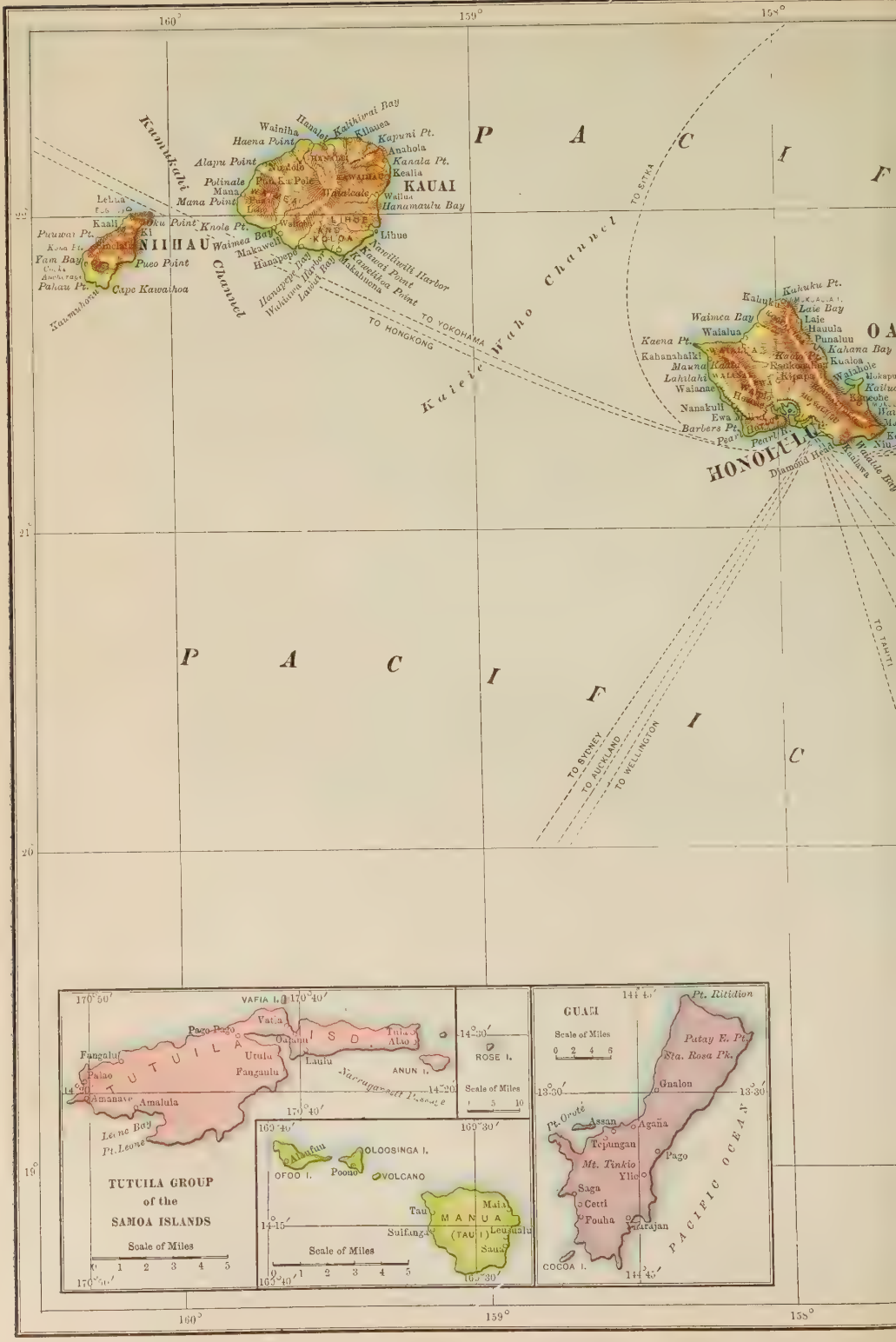
"On the 4th inst. the commissioners were accorded an interview with the undersigned at the request of the regularly accredited Hawaiian minister, Mr. J. Mott Smith, and submitted to me their credentials, accompanied by a statement of events leading up to and connected with the overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of the provisional government. At a second conference on the same day the commissioners submitted to the undersigned the proposition of the provisional government, containing the terms upon which that government desired the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands to the United States. A copy of this proposition is enclosed.

"Frequent conferences have since been held at the Department of State, and all questions connected with the subject have been carefully examined and discussed, until a concurrence of views on the part of the negotiating parties was reached on the 11th inst.

"In drafting and agreeing upon the treaty now transmitted, the undersigned has sought, under your direction, to effect thereby the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands to the United States with as few conditions as possible, and with a full reservation to Congress of its legislative prerogatives. An examination of the provisions of this treaty will show that to Congress is reserved the determination of all questions affecting the form of government of the annexed territory, the citizenship and elective franchise of its inhabitants, the manner of and terms under which the revenue and navigation laws of the United States are to be extended thereto, and all other questions relating to the economic and political status of the islands.

"As there is no provision in the existing legislation of Congress whereby the executive power can provide an organized form of government for new territory annexed to the Union, or extend over it the laws of the United States, and cause the same to be executed, it was deemed necessary to continue the existing government and laws of the Hawaiian Islands until Congress should have an opportunity to legislate on the subject; but a provision has been inserted in the treaty for the exercise by the executive of the United States of a veto power upon the acts of that government during the interregnum. The temporary maintenance of the existing political institutions of the islands seems the more appropriate in view of the fact that the Hawaiian constitution, of which a copy is enclosed herewith, and the Hawaiian laws, are based upon principles similar to those contained in our own organic law and the principles of the common law.

"It is to be noted that, according to a recognized principle of international law, the obligations of treaties, even


160°
159°
158°
22°
21°
20°
19°
P A C I F I C
Kaulakahi Channel
Kaie'ie'waho Channel
TO SITKA
TO YOKOHAMA
TO HONGKONG
TO SYDNEY
TO AUCKLAND
TO WELLINGTON
TO TAHITI
KAUAI
NIIHAU
Waimea Bay
Waialua
Kaena Pt.
Kahuku Pt.
Laie Bay
Kahana Bay
Punaluu
Lihue
Nawiliwili Harbor
Kilauea Point
Hanamaulu Bay
Anahola
Kapuni Pt.
Kanala Pt.
Kealia
Haena Point
Alapu Point
Polinale
Mana
Mana Point
Waialeale
Makaweli
Waimea Bay
Kaumakani
Kamalomalo
Kaumahina
Hanapepe Bay
Waiawa Harbor
Lawai Bay
Makahuena Point
Kawaihoa Point
Kaumualii
Kaneha
Kaluaa
Kaena Pt.
Kahanahaiki
Mauna Kea
Lahilahi
Waianae
Nanakuli
Ewa
Barbers Pt.
Pearl Harbor
HONOLULU
Diamond Head
Waikiki Beach
Kaalawa
Waialae Beach
Kailua
Waimanalo
Makapuu Point
Koko Head
Koko Crater
Hanauma Bay
Hawaii Kai
Waialae
Kaimuki
Manoa
Punchbowl
Nuuanu
Kalihi
Honolulu Harbor
Aiea
Waipio
Waipahu
Ewa Mill
Waianae Mts.
Kaala
Kipapa
Waialua
Haleiwa
Kaena Point
Waialua Beach
Kahuku
Laie
Hauula
Kaluanui
Waiahole
Waikane
Kaneohe
Kaneohe Bay
Mokapu Peninsula
Kaneohe Marine Corps Air Station
Kaneohe Bay Drive
Kamehameha Highway
Pali
Nuuanu Pali
Kaau Crater
Kaala
Kaena Point
Puuwai Pt.
Kawaihoa Pt.
Fam Bay
Pueo Point
Palaau Pt.
Cape Kawaihoa
Kaumahina
Kaali
Keki
Puu Ka Pele
Puu Kapele
Puu Opaeula
Puu Hapapa
Puu Kolo
Puu Kaaumakua
Puu Kaaumakua
Puu Kaaumakua

HAWAII
Scale of Miles
0 5 10 20 30 40 50
TO PORTLAND
TO VANCOUVER
TO SAN FRANCISCO
TO ACAPULCO
TO PANAMA
MOLOKAI
Lae o Ka-hiu
Kalaupapa
Leper Settlement
Halawa Pt.
Mokuho Nikl
Pailolo Channel
Honokahau
Honolua
Kapalua
Kanaha Harbor
Kahului Harbor
Kahului Bay
Kahului Pt.
Kaanapali
Lahaina
Waihee
Wailuku
Kahului
Wailuku
Waihee
Kahakuloa Pt.
Kaanoui
Kakaalele
Honokohau
Honolua
Kapalua
Kaena Pt.
Honopu
Kaa
Hakpalaoa
Olowalu
FIVE NEEDLES
LANAI
Puu Manu
Kaumalapau
Manele
Auau Channel
Kaunale Pt.
Kealaikahiki Channel
KAHOOLAWE
Kealaikahiki Pt.
Kanaio
Kaupo
Kaupo Gap
Kaupo Pt.
Kaupo Bay
Kaupo Landing
Kaupo Village

when some of their stipulations are in terms perpetual, expire in case either of the contracting parties loses its existence as an independent state. The foreign treaties of the Hawaiian Islands, therefore, upon annexation, terminate with the competence of the government thereof to hold diplomatic relations. An examination of these treaties shows, however, that they contain no stipulations which could embarrass either the Hawaiian Islands or the United States by their termination.

"Accompanying the treaty are tables giving full details as to the area of the territory annexed, the public debt, the public lands, the annual allowances to and revenue of the late royal household, and statistics as to the population, revenues, commerce, and other economic matters relating to the islands.

"It is gratifying to state that, pending the negotiations leading up to the treaty herewith submitted, the undersigned has received such assurances from the representatives of the leading powers of the world, and from our own ministers abroad, as leads to the conviction that the incorporation of the Hawaiian Islands into our Union will be regarded by these powers with satisfaction or ready acquiescence.

"Respectfully submitted,

"JOHN W. FOSTER.

"DEPARTMENT OF STATE, WASHINGTON, *Feb. 15, 1893.*"

TREATY OF 1893.

"The United States of America and the provisional government of the Hawaiian Islands: In view of the natural dependence of these islands upon the United States, of their geographical proximity thereto, of the intimate part taken by citizens of the United States in there implanting the seeds of Christian civilization, of the long continuance of their exclusive reciprocal commercial relations whereby their mutual interests have been developed, and of the preponderant and paramount share thus acquired by the United States and their citizens in the productions, industries, and trade of the said islands, and especially in view of the desire expressed by the said government of the Hawaiian Islands that those islands shall be incorporated into the United States as an integral part thereof and under their sovereignty, and in order to provide for and assure the security and prosperity of the said islands, the high contracting parties have determined to accomplish by treaty an object so important to their mutual and permanent welfare.

"To this end, the high contracting parties have conferred full power and authority upon their respectively appointed plenipotentiaries—to wit: The President of the United States of America, John W. Foster, Secretary of State of the United States; and the President of the Executive and Advisory Councils of the provisional government of the Hawaiian Islands, Lorrin A. Thurston, William R. Castle, William C. Wilder, Charles L. Carter, and Joseph Marsden.

"And the said plenipotentiaries, after having communicated to each other their respective full powers, found in good and true form, have agreed upon and concluded the following articles:

"Article 1. The government of the Hawaiian Islands hereby cedes, from the date of the exchange of the ratification of this treaty, absolutely and without reserve, to the United States forever, all rights of sovereignty of whatsoever kind in and over the Hawaiian Islands and their dependencies, renouncing in favor of the United States every sovereign right of which, as an independent nation, it is now possessed, and henceforth said Hawaiian Islands, and every island and key thereto appertaining, and each and every portion thereof, shall become and be an integral part of the territory of the United States.

"Art. 2. The government of the Hawaiian Islands also cedes and transfers to the United States the absolute fee and ownership of all public, government, or crown lands, public buildings or edifices, ports, harbors, fortifications, military or naval equipments, and all other public property of every kind and description belonging to the government of the Hawaiian Islands, together with every right and appurtenance thereunto appertaining. The existing laws of the United States relative to public lands shall not apply to such lands in the Hawaiian Islands, but the

Congress of the United States shall enact special laws for their management and disposition:

"*Provided*, that all revenues or proceeds of the same, except as regards such part thereof as may be used or occupied for the civil, military, or naval purposes of the United States, or may be assigned to the use of the local government, shall be used solely for the benefit of the inhabitants of the Hawaiian Islands for educational and other public purposes.

"Art. 3. Until Congress shall otherwise provide, the existing government and laws of the Hawaiian Islands are hereby continued, subject to the paramount authority of the United States. The President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint a commissioner to reside in the said islands, who shall have the power to veto any act of said government, and an act disapproved by him shall thereupon be void and of no effect unless approved by the President.

"Congress shall within one year from the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty enact the necessary legislation to extend to the Hawaiian Islands the laws of the United States respecting duties upon imports, the internal revenue, commerce, and navigation; but until Congress shall otherwise provide, the existing commercial relations of the Hawaiian Islands, both with the United States and foreign countries, shall continue as regards the commerce of said islands with the rest of the United States and foreign countries. But this shall not be construed as giving the said islands the power to enter into any new stipulation or agreement whatsoever, or to have diplomatic intercourse with any foreign government. The consular representatives of foreign powers now resident in the Hawaiian Islands shall be permitted to continue in the exercise of their consular functions until they can receive their exequaturs from the government of the United States.

"Art. 4. The further immigration of Chinese laborers into the Hawaiian Islands is hereby prohibited until Congress shall otherwise provide. Furthermore, Chinese persons of the classes now or hereafter excluded by law from entering the United States will not be permitted to come from the Hawaiian Islands to other parts of the United States, and, if so coming, shall be subject to the same penalties as if entering from a foreign country.

"Art. 5. The public debt of the Hawaiian Islands lawfully existing at the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, including the amounts due to depositors in the Hawaiian postal savings-banks, is hereby assumed by the government of the United States, but the liability of the United States in this regard shall in no case exceed $3,250,000. So long, however, as the existing government and the present commercial relations of the Hawaiian Islands are continued as hereinbefore provided, said government shall continue to pay the interest on said debt.

"Art. 6. The government of the United States agrees to pay Liliuokalani, the late queen, within one year from the date of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty the sum of $20,000, and annually thereafter a like sum of $20,000 during the term of her natural life, provided she in good faith submits to the authority of the government of the United States and the local government of the islands.

"And the government of the United States further agrees to pay to the Princess Kaiaulani within one year from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty the gross sum of $150,000, provided she in good faith submits to the authority of the government of the United States and the local government of the islands.

"Art. 7. The present treaty shall be ratified by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, on the one part, and by the provisional government of the Hawaiian Islands on the other, and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged at Honolulu as soon as possible. Such exchange shall be made on the part of the United States by the commissioner hereinbefore provided for, and it shall operate as a complete and final conveyance to the United States of all the rights of sovereignty and property herein ceded to them. Within one month after such exchange of ratifications the provisional government shall furnish said commissioner with a full and complete schedule of all the public property herein ceded and transferred.

"In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the above articles and have hereunto affixed their seals.

"Done in duplicate at the city of Washington this 14th day of February, 1893.

"JOHN W. FOSTER.

"LORRIN A. THURSTON,
"WILLIAM R. CASTLE,
"WILLIAM C. WILDER,
"CHARLES L. CARTER,
"JOSEPH MARSDEN."

The first important act of Mr. Cleveland after his inauguration was to withdraw the treaty from the Senate and send JAMES H. BLOUNT (*q. v.*) as a special commissioner to Hawaii, with "paramount" authority, to report upon the course of events. He withdrew the protectorate established by Mr. Stevens, who had been recalled in May, and remained in Hawaii until August. In September Albert S. Willis, of Kentucky, was appointed minister to the islands. Public attention, which had been somewhat diverted from Hawaiian affairs, was recalled to them by the publication, Nov. 10, of Secretary Gresham's report, in which he dwelt upon the proof of a conspiracy which had overturned the queen's government in January. This report was followed, Nov. 21, 1893, by Commissioner Blount's report, which displayed the results of his investigations in Hawaii, and had served as the basis for President Cleveland's policy. This policy was announced by message to Congress on Dec. 18 in the following language:

"By an act of war, committed with the participation of a diplomatic representative of the United States and without authority of Congress, the government of a feeble but friendly and confiding people has been overthrown. A substantial wrong has thus been done, which a due regard for our national character, as well as the rights of the injured people, requires we should endeavor to repair. The provisional government has not assumed a republican or other constitutional form, but has remained a mere executive council, or oligarchy, set up without the assent of the people. It has not sought to find a permanent basis of popular support, and has given no evidence of an intention to do so. Indeed, the representatives of that government assert that the people of Hawaii are unfit for popular government, and frankly avow that they can be best ruled by arbitrary or despotic power.

"The United States, in aiming to maintain itself as one of the most enlightened of nations, would do its citizens gross injustice if it applied to its international relations any other than a high standard of honor and morality. On that ground the United States cannot properly be put in the position of countenancing a wrong after its commission any more than in that of consenting to it in advance. On that ground it cannot allow itself to refuse to redress an injury inflicted through an abuse of power, by officers clothed with its authority and wearing its uniform; and on the same ground, if a feeble but friendly state is in danger of being robbed of its independence and its sovereignty by a misuse of the power of the United States, the United States cannot fail to vindicate its honor and its sense of justice by an earnest effort to make all possible reparation.

"These principles apply to the present case with irresistible force, when the special conditions of the queen's surrender of her sovereignty are recalled. She surrendered not to the provisional government, but to the United States. She surrendered not absolutely and permanently, but temporarily and conditionally, until such time as the facts could be considered by the United States. Furthermore, the provisional government acquiesced in her surrender in that manner and on those terms, not only by tacit consent, but through the positive acts of some members of the government, who urged her peaceable submission not merely to avoid bloodshed, but because she could place implicit reliance upon the justice of the United States, and that the whole subject would be finally considered at Washington."

The restoration programme was variously received throughout the country. Meanwhile, in Honolulu, Minister Willis had in November attempted to extract from the queen a promise of amnesty for members of the provisional government, but failed. A few weeks later he succeeded, and on Dec. 19 laid before the provisional government President Cleveland's desire for its abdication and restoration

of the monarchy, coupled with the queen's offer of pardon. This proposal was a few days later rejected by Mr. Dole for the provisional government. These proceedings became known in the middle of January, 1894, and on Jan. 13 President Cleveland transmitted the documents to Congress. Mr. Dole was not interfered with, and affairs in the islands quieted down at once. On Jan. 8, 1896, however, the following resolution relating to the Hawaiian Islands, offered by Representative Spalding (Republican, of Michigan), was read in the House and referred to the committee on foreign affairs:

"That Congress doth consent that the territory properly included within and rightfully belonging to the government of Hawaii, and commonly known as the Sandwich Islands, may be erected into a new State, to be called the State of Hawaii, with a republican form of government, to be adopted by the people of said government of Hawaii by deputies in convention assembled, with the consent of the existing government, in order that the same may be admitted as one of the States of this Union.

"Further, that the foregoing consent of Congress is given upon the following conditions and with the following guarantees, to wit:

"1. Said State to be formed subject to the adjustment by this government of all questions of boundary or jurisdiction that may arise with other governments or former governments of Hawaii; and the constitution thereof, with the proper evidence of its adoption by the people of the government of Hawaii, shall be transmitted to the President of the United States, to be laid before Congress for its final action on or before Jan. 1, 1898.

"2. Said State when admitted into the Union, after ceding to the United States all public property and means belonging to the government of Hawaii, shall retain all public funds of every kind which may belong to or be due said government, and also all the vacant and unappropriated land lying within its limits, to be applied to the payment of the debts and liabilities of said government of Hawaii, the residue of said lands to be disposed of as said State may direct; but in no case are said debts and liabilities to become a charge upon the United States.

"Further, that if the President of the United States shall in his judgment deem it most advisable, instead of proceeding to submit the foregoing resolution to the government of Hawaii as an overture on the part of the United States for admission, to negotiate with that government, then

"*Resolved*, that a State to be formed out of the present government of Hawaii, with one representative in Congress, shall be admitted into the Union by virtue of this act, as soon as the terms and conditions of such admission shall be agreed upon by the governments of Hawaii and the United States, and that $100,000 be appropriated to defray the expenses of missions and negotiations, either by treaty or articles, as the President may direct."

In 1897, when President Cleveland's term expired, commissioners from Hawaii arrived in Washington to again urge a treaty of annexation. President McKinley was favorable to the plan, and on June 16, 1897, the following treaty of annexation was signed by Secretary of State Sherman for the United States, and Commissioners Hatch, Thurston, and Kinney for the republic of Hawaii:

TREATY OF 1897.

"The United States of America and the republic of Hawaii, in view of the natural dependence of the Hawaiian Islands upon the United States, of their geographical proximity thereto, of the preponderant share acquired by the United States and its citizens in the industries and trade of said islands, and of the expressed desire of the government of the republic of Hawaii that those islands should be incorporated into the United States as an integral part thereof, and under its sovereignty, have determined to accomplish by treaty an object so important to their mutual and permanent welfare.

"To this end the high contracting parties have conferred full powers and authority upon their respectively appointed plenipotentiaries—to wit:

"The President of the United States, John Sherman, Secretary of State of the United States; the President of the re-

public of Hawaii, Francis March Hatch, Lorrin A. Thurston, and William A. Kinney.

"Article 1. The republic of Hawaii hereby cedes absolutely and without reserve to the United States of America all rights of sovereignty of whatsoever kind in and over the Hawaiian Islands and their dependencies; and it is agreed that all the territory of and appertaining to the republic of Hawaii is hereby annexed to the United States of America under the name of the Territory of Hawaii.

"Art. 2. The republic of Hawaii also cedes and hereby transfers to the United States the absolute fee and ownership of all public, government, or crown lands, public buildings or edifices, ports, harbors, military equipments, and all other public property of every kind and description belonging to the government of the Hawaiian Islands, together with every right and appurtenance thereunto appertaining.

"The existing laws of the United States relative to public lands shall not apply to such lands in the Hawaiian Islands, but the Congress of the United States shall enact special laws for their management and disposition; provided, that all revenue from or proceeds of the same, except as regards such part thereof as may be used or occupied for the civil, military, or naval purposes of the United States, or may be assigned for the use of the local government, shall be used solely for the benefit of the inhabitants of the Hawaiian Islands, for educational and other public purposes.

"Art. 3. Until Congress shall provide for the government of such islands, all the civil, judicial, and military powers exercised by the officers of the existing government in said islands shall be vested in such person or persons, and shall be exercised in such manner as the President of the United States shall direct, and the President shall have power to remove said officers and fill the vacancies so occasioned.

"The existing treaties of the Hawaiian Islands with foreign nations shall forthwith cease and determine, being replaced by such treaties as may exist or as may be hereafter concluded between the United States and such foreign nations. The municipal legislation of the Hawaiian Islands, not enacted for the fulfilment of the treaties so extinguished, and not inconsistent with this treaty nor contrary to the Constitution of the United States nor to any existing treaty of the United States, shall remain in force until the Congress of the United States shall otherwise determine.

"Until legislation shall be enacted extending the United States customs laws and regulations to the Hawaiian Islands, the existing customs relations of the Hawaiian Islands with the United States and other countries shall remain unchanged.

"Art. 4. The public debt of the republic of Hawaii, lawfully existing at the date of the exchange of the ratification of this treaty, including the amounts due to depositors in the Hawaiian Postal Savings Bank, is hereby assumed by the government of the United States, but the liability of the United States in this regard shall in no case exceed $4,000,000. So long, however, as the existing government and the present commercial relations of the Hawaiian Islands are continued as hereinbefore provided, said government shall continue to pay interest on said debt.

"Art. 5. There shall be no further immigration of Chinese into the Hawaiian Islands, except upon such conditions as are now or may hereafter be allowed by the laws of the United States, and no Chinese by reason of anything herein contained shall be allowed to enter the United States from the Hawaiian Islands.

"Art. 6. The President shall appoint five commissioners, at least two of whom shall be residents of the Hawaiian Islands, who shall as soon as reasonable and practicable recommend to Congress such legislation concerning the Territory of Hawaii as they shall deem necessary or proper.

"Art. 7. This treaty shall be ratified by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, on the one part, and by the President of the republic of Hawaii, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate in accordance with the constitution of the said republic, on the other, and the ratifications hereof shall be ex-

changed at Washington as soon as possible.

"In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the above articles and have hereunto affixed their seals.

"Done in duplicate at the city of Washington, this sixteenth day of June, one thousand eight hundred and ninety-seven.

"JOHN SHERMAN,
"FRANCIS MARCH HATCH,
"LORRIN A. THURSTON,
"WILLIAM A. KINNEY."

The President sent the treaty to the Senate on the following day, with a recommendation for its ratification; but that body adjourned without taking action on it.

Failing to secure annexation by direct treaty the advocates in the United States of the measure resorted to a different procedure. On June 11, 1898, the House committee on foreign affairs reported the following joint resolution:

"*Whereas*, the government of the republic of Hawaii having in due form signified its consent, in the manner provided by the Constitution, to cede absolutely and without reserve to the United States of America all rights of sovereignty of whatsoever kind in and over the Hawaiian Islands and their dependencies, and also to cede and transfer to the United States the absolute fee and ownership of all public, government, or crown lands, public buildings or edifices, ports, harbors, military equipment, and all other public property of every kind and description belonging to the government of the Hawaiian Islands, together with every right and appurtenance thereunto belonging; therefore,

"*Resolved*, by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, that said cession is accepted, ratified, and confirmed, and that the said Hawaiian Islands and their dependencies be, and they are hereby, annexed as a part of the territory of the United States, and are subject to the sovereign dominion thereof, and that all and singular the property and rights hereinbefore mentioned are vested in the United States of America.

"The existing laws of the United States relative to public lands shall not apply to such lands in the Hawaiian Islands; but the Congress of the United States shall enact special laws for their management and disposition; Provided, that all revenue from or proceeds of the same, except as regards such part thereof as may be used or occupied for the civil, military, or naval purposes of the United States, or may be assigned for the use of the local government, shall be used solely for the benefit of the inhabitants of the Hawaiian Islands for educational and other public purposes.

"Until Congress shall provide for the government of such islands all the civil, judicial, and military powers exercised by the officers of the existing government in said islands shall be vested in such person or persons and shall be exercised in such manner as the President of the United States shall direct; and the President shall have power to remove said officers and fill the vacancies so occasioned.

"The existing treaties of the Hawaiian Islands with foreign nations shall forthwith cease and determine, being replaced by such treaties as may exist, or as may be hereafter concluded, between the United States and such foreign nations. The municipal legislation of the Hawaiian Islands, not enacted for the fulfilment of the treaties so extinguished, and not inconsistent with this joint resolution nor contrary to the Constitution of the United States nor to any existing treaty of the United States, shall remain in force until the Congress of the United States shall otherwise determine.

"Until legislation shall be enacted extending the United States customs laws and regulations to the Hawaiian Islands the existing customs relations of the Hawaiian Islands with the United States and other countries shall remain unchanged.

"The public debt of the republic of Hawaii, lawfully existing at the date of the passage of this joint resolution, including the amounts due to depositors in the Hawaiian postal savings-bank, is hereby assumed by the government of the United States; but the liability of the United States in this regard shall in no case exceed $4,000,000. So long, however, as the existing government and the present commercial relations of the Hawaiian

Islands are continued as hereinbefore provided, said government shall pay the interest on said debt.

"There shall be no further immigration of Chinese into the Hawaiian Islands, except upon such conditions as are now or may be hereafter allowed by the laws of the United States; and no Chinese, by reason of anything herein contained, shall be allowed to enter the United States from the Hawaiian Islands.

"The President shall appoint five commissioners, at least two of whom shall be residents of the Hawaiian Islands, who shall, as soon as reasonably practicable, recommend to Congress such legislation concerning the Hawaiian Islands as they shall deem necessary or proper.

"Sec. 2. That the commissioners hereinbefore provided for shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

"Sec. 3. That the sum of $100,000, or so much thereof as may be necessary, is hereby appropriated, out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, and to be immediately available, to be expended at the discretion of the President of the United States of America, for the purpose of carrying this joint resolution into effect."

On the adoption of the resolution the President appointed the following commission: President Sanford B. Dole and Chief-Justice Walter H. Frear, of Hawaii; Senators Shelby M. Cullom and John T. Morgan; and Representative Robert T. Hitt. On August 12 the United States took formal possession of the islands, Sanford B. Dole becoming territorial governor. See UNITED STATES, HAWAII, vol. ix.

GOVERNORS OF HAWAII.

Sanford B. Dole	1900 to 1903
George R. Carter	1903 " —

Hawes, JOEL, clergyman; born in Medway, Mass., Dec. 22, 1789; graduated at Brown College in 1813; was pastor of the First Congregational Church in Hartford, Conn., for more than forty years. He published *Tribute to the Memory of the Pilgrims; Memoir of Normand Smith; Washington and Jay,* etc. He died in Gilead, Conn., June 5, 1867.

Hawk-eye State. The name is said to have been given to Iowa because an Indian chief of that name who ruled there was a terror to the *voyageurs* upon the Mississippi.

Hawkins, DEXTER ARNOLD, lawyer; born in Camden, Me., June 23, 1825; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1848; began law practice in New York City in 1854. He took a keen interest in public education and other important questions, and did much to bring about legislation favorable to them. Among his publications are reports on *Sectarian Appropriations of Public Moneys and Property; Duty of the State to protect the Free Common Schools by Organic Law; Extravagance of the Tammany Ring.* His other works include *Donations of Public Property to Private Corporations, and the Illegal Exemption of the Same from Taxation* (which led to an amendment of the New York constitution prohibiting such appropriations); *The Roman Catholic Church in New York City and the Public Land and Public Money; Free Trade and Protection; The Redemption of the Trade Dollar; The Silver Problem,* etc. He died in New York City, July 24, 1886.

Hawkins, ERNEST, author; born in England about 1802; graduated at Oxford University in 1824, and became a clergyman. He was the author of *Notices of the Church of England's Missions to the North American Colonies Previous to the Independence of the United States; Annals of the Colonial Church,* etc. He died in 1868.

Hawkins, SIR JOHN, naval officer; born in Plymouth, England, in 1520; carried a cargo of 300 slaves from Guinea in 1562, and sold them in Cuba. In 1564 he attempted to capture and enslave a whole town near Sierra Leone, and narrowly escaped being captured himself and sold into slavery. Hawkins was filled with the most pious reflections at his escape, and in his narrative (which is the first English narrative of American adventure printed) he says: "God, who worketh all things for the best, would not have it so, and by Him we escaped without danger. His name be praised for it." His second cargo of slaves he sold in Venezuela and elsewhere. In this second voyage he coasted the peninsula of Florida, and gives a fairly detailed account of it in his narrative. He made a third voy-

age in 1568, and in spite of the King of Spain's prohibition, sold his cargoes of slaves to advantage. In the port of San Juan de Ulloa he met a Spanish fleet much stronger than his own. He made a solemn compact of mutual forbearance with the Spanish commander, which he treacherously broke, and in the ensuing conflict Hawkins was utterly defeated. Sir Francis Drake was with him on this third voyage. Returning to England, Hawkins was made a vice-admiral in the fleet which fought the Armada in 1588. Sir John Hawkins and Sir Francis Drake were sent on an expedition against the Spanish settlements in America in 1595. Porto Rico successfully defied him, and, much depressed at his reverses, he died at sea, Nov. 21, 1595.

DEFEAT OF HAWKINS AT SAN JUAN DE ULLOA.

Hawkins, William George, clergyman; born in Baltimore, Md., Oct. 22, 1823; was ordained in the Protestant Episcopal Church in 1851; held pastorates in various States. His publications include *History of the New York National Freedman's Association; Young America in the Northwest*, etc.

Hawks, Francis Lister, clergyman; born in Newbern, N. C., June 10, 1798; graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1815; ordained in the Protestant Episcopal Church in 1827; was a

noted preacher, and held pastorates in important churches, including St. Thomas's in New York City, of which he was rector in 1831–43. He was the author of *Reports of Cases adjudged in the Supreme Court of North Carolina; Contributions to the Ecclesiastical History of the United States of America:* vol. i., *On the Early Church in Virginia;* vol. ii., *On the Church in Maryland; Commentary on the Constitution and Canons of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States; History of North Carolina,* etc. He was also editor of *State Papers of Gen. Alexander Hamilton; Perry's Expedition to the China Seas and Japan;* vols. i. and ii. of the *Documentary History of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States* (with Rev. William S. Perry), etc. He died in New York City, Sept. 26, 1866.

Hawley, CHARLES, author; born in Catskill, N. Y., Aug. 19, 1819; graduated at Williams College in 1840, and at the Union Theological Seminary in 1844; pastor of a Presbyterian church in Auburn, N. Y., in 1858–85; and a special United States commissioner to Denmark in 1867. He was the author of *Early Chapters of Cayuga History; Early Chapters of Seneca History; History of First Presbyterian Church of Auburn, N. Y.* He died in Auburn, N. Y., Nov. 26, 1885.

Hawley, JOSEPH, statesman; born in Northampton, Mass., Oct. 8, 1723; graduated at Yale College in 1742; studied theology, but abandoned it for law, and in that practice arose to distinction rapidly. Early espousing the republican cause, he was regarded as one of its ablest advocates. He steadily refused a proffered seat in the governor's council, but served in the Assembly from 1764 to 1776, where he was distinguished for his bold and manly eloquence. He was chairman of the committee of the first provincial congress of Massachusetts (October, 1774) to consider the state of the country. Mr. Hawley remained in public life until failing health compelled him to retire, and died in Hampshire county, Mass., March 10, 1788.

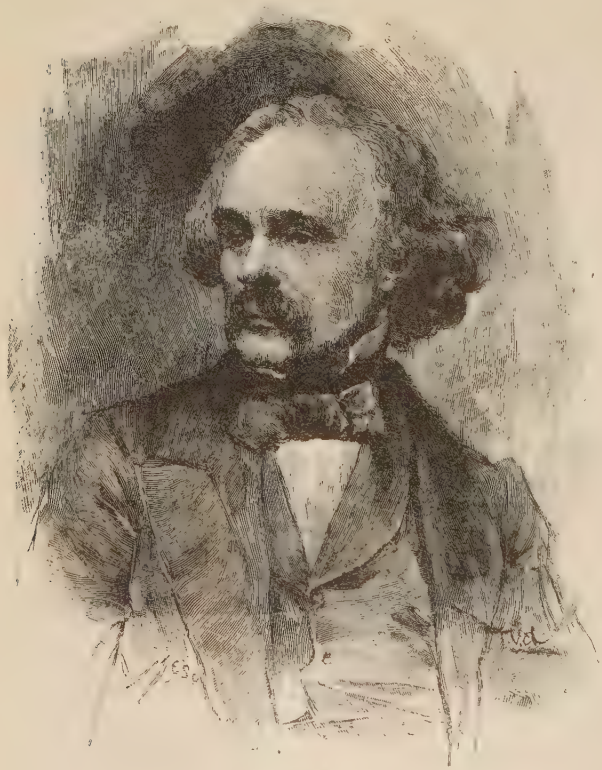
Hawley, JOSEPH ROSWELL, statesman; born in Stewartsville, N. C., Oct. 31, 1826; graduated at Hamilton College in 1847, and began the practice of law in Hartford, Conn., in 1850. He was a captain in the 1st Connecticut Regiment in the battle of Bull Run; and was active under General Terry on the coasts of South Carolina and Florida. He commanded a brigade in the battle of Olustee, Fla.; joined the army of the James, under Terry, and participated in the campaigns against Petersburg and Richmond; was made brigadier-general, and became Terry's chief-of-staff in Virginia. He was brevetted major-general of volunteers in 1865, and in 1866–67 was governor of Connecticut. He was president of the "Centennial Commission," and performed the duties with great efficiency and masterly skill (see CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION).

JOSEPH ROSWELL HAWLEY.

He was elected to Congress in 1872, and to the United States Senate in 1880, 1887, 1893, and 1899. General Hawley was actively engaged in journalism from 1857.

Hawthorne, NATHANIEL, author; born in Salem, Mass., July 4, 1804; was graduated at Bowdoin College in 1825. His first novel was published anonymously in Boston in 1832. In 1837 a number of his tales and sketches were published under the title of *Twice-told Tales.* A second series appeared in 1842. From 1838 to

1841, he held a place in the Boston custom-house. Afterwards he lived at Brook Farm, a community of literary men and philosophers (see BROOK FARM ASSOCIATION). Marrying in 1843, he took up his abode at Concord. He became surveyor of the port of Salem. He afterwards settled in Lenox, Mass., and in 1852 returned to Concord. In 1853 he became United States consul at Liverpool, which place he resigned in 1857. His most popular writings are *The Scarlet Letter*, and *The House of the Seven Gables*. *Septimus; American Note-Books; English Note-Books*, etc., appeared after his death, which occurred in Plymouth, N. H., May 19, 1864.



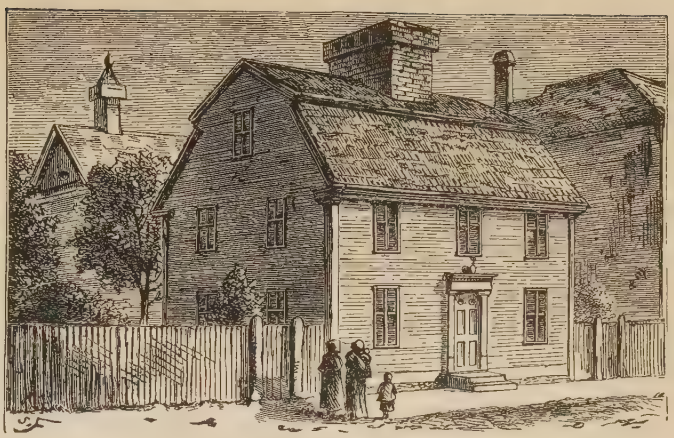
NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE.

Hay, ADELBERT STONE, consul; born in Cleveland, O., in 1876; son of John Hay, Secretary of State; graduated at Yale College in 1898; appointed United States consul at Pretoria, South African Republic, in 1899, and served till November, 1900. During this brief period he won high praise from British and Boers alike for the impartial and humane manner in which he executed his official duties, and for the personal services he rendered the sick and wounded of the belligerents. At the time of his death he had been appointed assistant private secretary to President McKinley, and was to have entered on that service on July 1. He died in New Haven, Conn., June 23, 1901.

Hay, CHARLES, LORD. See LOUDOUN, JOHN CAMPBELL, EARL OF.

Hay, JOHN, statesman; born in Salem, Ind., Oct. 8, 1838; studied in an academy in Springfield, Ill., and graduated at Brown University in 1858; studied law and was admitted to the Illinois bar. He was a friend of Abraham Lincoln, whom he accompanied to Washington at the time of his inauguration, and served as his assistant private secretary till 1863, when he joined General Hunter in South Carolina as aide-de-camp. In the same year he was appointed assistant adjutant-general, and assigned to the staff of GEN. QUINCY A. GILLMORE (*q. v.*), and was subsequently ordered to duty at the White House, where he remained until President Lincoln's assassination. Later he was brevetted colonel of volunteers. In 1865–67 he was secretary of legation in Paris; in 1867–68 at Vienna; and then till 1870 at Madrid. During 1870–75 he was an editorial writer on the New York *Tribune;* then removed to Cleveland. He was active in the Republican Presidential campaigns

of 1876, 1880, and 1884; was first assistant Secretary of State in 1879–81; in 1897–98 was ambassador to Great Britain; and in September, 1898, was appointed Secretary of State to succeed JUDGE WILLIAM R. DAY (*q. v.*). His publications include *Castilian Days*, and *Abraham Lincoln: a History* (with John G. Nicolay). See CLAYTON-BULWER TREATY.



BIRTHPLACE OF NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE.

Hayden, FERDINAND VANDEVEER, scientist; born in Westfield, Mass., Sept.

JOHN HAY

7, 1829; explored the Bad Lands, the upper Missouri, the Yellowstone; superintendent of the United States geological survey, 1869–86. He died Dec. 22, 1887.

Hayden, HORACE EDWIN, clergyman; born in Catonsville, Md., Feb. 18, 1837; served in the Confederate army in 1861–65. Wrote *History of the West Virginia Soldiers' Medals; Virginia Genealogies; Massacre of Wyoming; Pollock Memorial*, etc.

Hayes, ISAAC ISRAEL, explorer; born in Chester county, Pa., March 5, 1832; graduated in medicine at the University of Pennsylvania in 1853. He was surgeon of the second Grinnell expedition to the polar seas under DR. ELISHA KENT KANE (*q. v.*). Satisfied of the existence of an open polar sea, he wrote and lectured on the subject on his return. He excited such interest in the subject that, with the aid of subscriptions in Europe and the United States, he was enabled to fit out the steamer *United States*, of 133 tons, in which he sailed from Boston, July 9, 1860, with thirteen other persons, for the Arctic regions. They anchored, after a perilous voyage, in Port Foulke, on the west coast of Greenland, in lat. 78° 17′, on Sept. 9, where they wintered. In April, 1861, with twelve men and fourteen dogs, he pushed northward over the ice in a boat; but finally the vessel was sent back, and Dr. Hayes, with three companions and two dog-sledges, pressed on to land in lat. 81° 37′, beyond which they discovered open water. The expedition returned to Boston in October. Dr. Hayes found his country in civil war, and he served in it as a surgeon. In 1867 he published an account of his expedition, under the title of *The Open Polar Sea;* and the Royal Geographical Society of London and the Geographical Society of Paris each presented to him a gold medal. In 1869 he

sailed in the steamer *Panther*, in company with the artist WILLIAM BRADFORD (*q. v.*), and explored the southern coasts of Greenland. After his return he published *The Land of Desolation*. He died in New York City, Dec. 17, 1881.

Hayes, JOHN LORD, lawyer; born in South Berwick, Me., April 13, 1812; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1831; became a lawyer in 1835; was secretary of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers in 1865–87. He wrote *The Protective Question Abroad and at Home; Reminiscences of the Free-Soil Movement in New Hampshire*, etc. He died in Cambridge, Mass., April 18, 1887.

HAYES, RUTHERFORD BIRCHARD

Hayes, RUTHERFORD BIRCHARD, nineteenth President of the United States, from 1877 to 1881; Republican; born in Delaware, O., Oct. 4, 1822; graduated at Kenyon College, O., in 1842, and at the Cambridge Law School in 1845; practised law in Cincinnati until 1861, when he became first major, and then colonel, of the 23d Regiment Ohio Volunteers, first serving in western Virginia. He was wounded in the battle of South Mountain, Md.; and from December, 1862, to September, 1864, commanded the 1st Brigade, Kanawha division. He was appointed brigadier-general in October, 1864, for gallant conduct at Winchester, Fisher's Hill, and Cedar Creek. In March, 1865, he was brevetted major-general of volunteers, and in the same year was elected to Congress. In 1867 he was elected governor of Ohio, and in 1869 and 1875 was re-elected. In 1877 he was declared President of the United States by a majority of one in the Electoral College over Samuel J. Tilden (see ELECTORAL COMMISSION). He died in Fremont, O., Jan. 17, 1893.

March 4, 1877, fell on Sunday. President-elect Hayes was in Washington, the guest of Senator John Sherman. There had been threats made by the opposition of taking forcible possession of the Presidential office, and inaugurating Samuel J. Tilden, the rival candidate for President. It was thought best by the friends of the President-elect not to postpone administering the oath of office to him until Monday, as had been done in other cases when the time for inaugurating a new President fell on Sunday. Mr. Hayes, therefore, took the oath of office privately, in Senator Sherman's house, on Sunday, and on the following day the public inauguration ceremonies were performed at the usual place, on the east front of the Capitol, in the presence of an immense multitude of people. The oath of office was administered by Chief-Justice Waite. See CABINET, PRESIDENT'S.

Inaugural Address.—In his inaugural address, on March 5, 1877, President Hayes discussed the progress of reconstruction in the Southern States and the operations of the Electoral Commission.

Fellow-Citizens,—We have assembled to repeat the public ceremonial, begun by Washington, observed by all my predecessors, and now a time-honored custom, which marks the commencement of a new term of the Presidential office. Called to the duties of this great trust, I proceed, in compliance with usage, to announce some of the leading principles, on the subjects that now chiefly engage the public attention, by which it is my desire to be guided in the discharge of those duties. I shall not undertake to lay down irrevocably principles or measures of administration, but rather to speak of the motives which should animate us, and to suggest certain important ends to be attained in accordance with our institutions and essential to the welfare of our country. At the outset of the discussions which preceded the recent Presidential election it seemed to me fitting that I should fully make known my sentiments in regard to several of the important questions which then appeared to demand the consideration of the country. Following the example, and in part adopting the language, of one of my predecessors, I wish now, when every motive for misrepresentation has passed away, to repeat what was said before the election, trusting that my countrymen will candidly weigh and understand it, and that they will feel assured

that the sentiments declared in accepting the nomination for the Presidency will be the standard of my conduct in the path before me, charged, as I am now, with the grave and difficult task of carrying them out in the practical administration of the government so far as depends, under the Constitution and laws, on the chief executive of the nation.

The permanent pacification of the country upon such principles and by such measures as will secure the complete protection of all its citizens in the free enjoyment of all their constitutional rights is now the one subject in our public affairs which all thoughtful and patriotic citizens regard as of supreme importance.

Many of the calamitous effects of the tremendous revolution which has passed over the Southern States still remain. The immeasurable benefits which will surely follow, sooner or later, the hearty and generous acceptance of the legitimate results of that revolution have not yet been realized. Difficult and embarrassing questions meet us at the threshold of this subject. The people of those States are still impoverished, and the inestimable blessing of wise, honest, and peaceful local self-government is not fully enjoyed. Whatever difference of opinion may exist as to the cause of this condition of things, the fact is clear that in the progress of events the time has come when such government is the imperative necessity required by all the varied interests, public and private, of those States. But it must not be forgotten that only a local government which recognizes and maintains inviolate the rights of all is a true self-government.

With respect to the two distinct races whose peculiar relations to each other have brought upon us the deplorable complications and perplexities which exist in those States, it must be a government which guards the interests of both races carefully and equally. It must be a government which submits loyally and heartily to the Constitution and the laws of the nation and the laws of the States themselves—accepting and obeying faithfully the whole Constitution as it is.

Resting upon this sure and substantial foundation, the superstructure of beneficent local governments can be built up, and not otherwise. In furtherance of such obedience to the letter and the spirit of the Constitution, and in behalf of all that its attainment implies, all so-called party interests lose their apparent importance, and party lines may well be permitted to fade into insignificance. The question we have to consider for the immediate welfare of those States of the Union is the question of government or no government; of social order and all the peaceful industries and the happiness that belongs to it, or a return to barbarism. It is a question in which every citizen of the nation is deeply interested, and with respect to which we ought not to be, in a partisan sense, either Republicans or Democrats, but fellow-citizens and fellowmen, to whom the interests of a common country and a common humanity are dear.

The sweeping revolution of the entire labor system of a large portion of our country and the advance of 4,000,000 people from a condition of servitude to that of citizenship, upon an equal footing with their former masters, could not occur without presenting problems of the gravest moment, to be dealt with by the emancipated race, by their former masters, and by the general government, the author of the act of emancipation. That it was a wise, just, and providential act, fraught with good for all concerned, is now generally conceded throughout the country. That a moral obligation rests upon the national government to employ its constitutional power and influence to establish the rights of the people it has emancipated, and to protect them in the enjoyment of those rights when they are infringed or assailed, is also generally admitted.

The evils which afflict the Southern States can only be removed or remedied by the united and harmonious efforts of both races, actuated by motives of mutual sympathy and regard; and while in duty bound and fully determined to protect the rights of all by every constitutional means at the disposal of my administration, I am sincerely anxious to use every legitimate influence in favor of honest and efficient local self-government as the true resource of those States for the promotion of the contentment and prosperity of their citizens. In the effort I shall make to accomplish this purpose I ask the cordial

co-operation of all who may cherish an interest in the welfare of the country, trusting that party ties and the prejudice of race will be freely surrendered in behalf of the great purpose to be accomplished. In the important work of restoring the South it is not the political situation alone that merits attention. The material development of that section of the country has been arrested by the social and political revolution through which it has passed, and now needs and deserves the considerate care of the national government within the just limits prescribed by the Constitution and wise public economy.

But at the basis of all prosperity for that, as well as for every other part of the country, lies the improvement of the intellectual and moral condition of the people. Universal suffrage should rest upon universal education. To this end, liberal and permanent provision should be made for the support of free schools by the State governments, and, if need be, supplemented by legitimate aid from national authority.

Let me assure my countrymen of the Southern States that it is my earnest desire to regard and promote their truest interests—the interest of the white and of the colored people both and equally—and to put forth my best efforts in behalf of a civil policy which will forever wipe out in our political affairs the color line and the distinction between North and South, to the end that we may have not merely a united North or a united South, but a united country.

I ask the attention of the public to the paramount necessity of reform in our civil service—a reform not merely as to certain abuses and practices of so-called official patronage which have come to have the sanction of usage in the several departments of our government, but a change in the system of appointment itself; a reform that shall be thorough, radical, and complete; a return to the principles and practices of the founders of the government. They neither expected nor desired from public officers any partisan service. They meant that public officers should owe their whole service to the government and to the people. They meant that the officer should be secure in his tenure as long as his personal character remained untarnished and the performance of his duties satisfactory. They held that appointments to office were not to be made nor expected merely as rewards for partisan services, nor merely on the nomination of members of Congress, as being entitled in any respect to the control of such appointments.

The fact that both the great political parties of the country, in declaring their principles prior to the election, gave a prominent place to the subject of reform of our civil service, recognizing and strongly urging its necessity, in terms almost identical in their specific import with those I have here employed, must be accepted as a conclusive argument in behalf of these measures. It must be regarded as the expression of the united voice and will of the whole country upon this subject, and both political parties are virtually pledged to give it their unreserved support.

The President of the United States of necessity owes his election to office to the suffrage and zealous labors of a political party, the members of which cherish with ardor and regard as of essential importance the principles of their party organization; but he should strive to be always mindful of the fact that he serves his party best who serves the country best.

In furtherance of the reform we seek, and in other important respects a change of great importance, I recommend an amendment to the Constitution prescribing a term of six years for the Presidential office, and forbidding a re-election.

With respect to the financial condition of the country, I shall not attempt an extended history of the embarrassment and prostration which we have suffered during the past three years. The depression in all our varied commercial and manufacturing interests throughout the country, which began in September, 1873, still continues. It is very gratifying, however, to be able to say that there are indications all around us of a coming change to prosperous times.

Upon the currency question, intimately connected, as it is, with this topic, I may be permitted to repeat here the statement made in my letter of acceptance, that, in my judgment, the feeling of uncertainty

inseparable from an irredeemable paper currency, with its fluctuation of values, is one of the greatest obstacles to a return to prosperous times. The only safe paper currency is one which rests upon a coin basis and is at all times and promptly convertible into coin.

I adhere to the views heretofore expressed by me in favor of congressional legislation in behalf of an early resumption of specie payments, and I am satisfied not only that this is wise, but that the interests, as well as the public sentiment, of the country imperatively demand it.

Passing from these remarks upon the condition of our own country to consider our relations with other lands, we are reminded by the international complications abroad, threatening the peace of Europe, that our traditional rule of non-interference in the affairs of foreign nations has proved of great value in past times and ought to be strictly observed.

The policy inaugurated by my honored predecessor, President Grant, of submitting to arbitration grave questions in dispute between ourselves and foreign powers, points to a new, and incomparably the best, instrumentality for the preservation of peace, and will, as I believe, become a beneficent example of the course to be pursued in similar emergencies by other nations.

If, unhappily, questions of difference should at any time during the period of my administration arise between the United States and any foreign government, it will certainly be my disposition and my hope to aid in their settlement in the same peaceful and honorable way, thus securing to our country the great blessings of peace and mutual good offices with all the nations of the world.

Fellow-citizens, we have reached the close of a political contest marked by the excitement which usually attends the contests between great political parties whose members espouse and advocate with earnest faith their respective creeds. The circumstances were, perhaps, in no respect extraordinary save in the closeness and the consequent uncertainty of the result.

For the first time in the history of the country it has been deemed best, in view of the peculiar circumstances of the case, that the objections and questions in dispute with reference to the counting of the electoral votes should be referred to the decision of a tribunal appointed for this purpose.

That tribunal—established by law for this sole purpose; its members, all of them, men of long-established reputation for integrity and intelligence, and, with the exception of those who are also members of the supreme judiciary, chosen equally from both political parties; its deliberations enlightened by the research and the arguments of able counsel—was entitled to the fullest confidence of the American people. Its decisions have been patiently waited for, and accepted as legally conclusive by the general judgment of the people. For the present, opinion will widely vary as to the wisdom of the several conclusions announced by that tribunal. This is to be anticipated in every instance where matters of dispute are made the subject of arbitration under the forms of law. Human judgment is never unerring, and is rarely regarded as otherwise than wrong by the unsuccessful party in the contest.

The fact that two great political parties have in this way settled a dispute in regard to which good men differ as to the facts and the law no less than to the proper course to be pursued in solving the question in controversy is an occasion for general rejoicing.

Upon one point there is entire unanimity in public sentiment—that conflicting claims to the Presidency must be amicably and peaceably adjusted, and that when so adjusted the general acquiescence of the nation ought surely to follow.

It has been reserved for a government of the people, where the right of suffrage is universal, to give to the world the first example in history of a great nation, in the midst of the struggle of opposing parties for power, hushing its party tumults to yield the issue of the contest to adjustment according to the forms of law.

Looking for the guidance of that Divine Hand by which the destinies of nations and individuals are shaped, I call upon you, Senators, Representatives, judges, fellow-citizens, here and everywhere, to unite with me in an earnest effort to secure to our country the blessings, not only of

material prosperity, but of justice, peace, and union—a union depending not upon the constraint of force, but upon the loving devotion of a free people; "and that all things may be so ordered and settled upon the best and surest foundations that peace and happiness, truth and justice, religion and piety, may be established among us for all generations."

Military Interference at Elections.—On May 12, 1879, President Hayes sent the following veto message to the Congress:

To the House of Representatives,—After a careful consideration of the bill entitled "An act to prohibit military interference at elections," I return it to the House of Representatives, in which it originated, with the following objections to its approval:

In the communication sent to the House of Representatives on the 29th of last month, returning to the House without my approval the bill entitled "An act making appropriations for the support of the army for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1880, and for other purposes," I endeavored to show, by quotations from the statutes of the United States now in force, and by a brief statement of facts in regard to recent elections in the several States, that no additional legislation was necessary to prevent interference with the elections by the military or naval forces of the United States. The fact was presented in that communication that at the time of the passage of the act of June 18, 1878, in relation to the employment of the army as a *posse comitatus* or otherwise, it was maintained by its friends that it would establish a vital and fundamental principle which would secure to the people protection against a standing army. The fact was also referred to that, since the passage of this act, congressional, State, and municipal elections have been held throughout the Union, and that in no instance has complaint been made of the presence of United States soldiers at the polls.

Holding, as I do, the opinion that any military interference whatever at the polls is contrary to the spirit of our institutions and would tend to destroy the freedom of elections, and sincerely desiring to concur with Congress in all of its measures, it is with very great regret that I am forced to the conclusion that the bill before me is not only unnecessary to prevent such interference, but is a dangerous departure from long-settled and important constitutional principles.

The true rule as to the employment of military force at the elections is not doubtful. No intimidation or coercion should be allowed to control or influence citizens in the exercise of their right to vote, whether it appears in the shape of combinations of evil-disposed persons, or of armed bodies of the militia of a State, or of the military force of the United States.

The elections should be free from all forcible interference, and, as far as practicable, from all apprehensions of such interference. No soldiers, either of the Union or of the State militia, should be present at the polls to take the place or to perform the duties of the ordinary civil police force. There has been and will be no violation of this rule under orders from me during this administration; but there should be no denial of the right of the national government to employ its military force on any day and at any place in case such employment is necessary to enforce the Constitution and laws of the United States.

The bill before me is as follows:

"*Be it enacted, etc.*, that it shall not be lawful to bring to or employ at any place where a general or special election is being held in a State any part of the army or navy of the United States, unless such force be necessary to repel the armed enemies of the United States or to enforce section 4, article iv., of the Constitution of the United States and the laws made in pursuance thereof, on application of the legislature or executive of the State where such force is to be used; and so much of all laws as is inconsistent herewith is hereby repealed."

It will be observed that the bill exempts from the general prohibition against the employment of military force at the polls two specified cases. These exceptions recognize and concede the soundness of the principle that military force may properly and constitutionally be used at the place of elections when such use is necessary to enforce the Constitution and the laws; but the excepted cases leave the prohibi-

Sincerely
R. B. Hayes

tion so extensive and far-reaching that its adoption will seriously impair the efficiency of the executive department of the government.

The first act expressly authorizing the use of military power to execute the laws was passed almost as early as the organization of the government under the Constitution, and was approved by President Washington, May 2, 1792. It is as follows:

"Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, that whenever the laws of the United States shall be opposed or the execution thereof obstructed in any State by combinations too powerful to be suppressed by the ordinary course of judicial proceedings or by the powers vested in the marshals by this act, the same being notified to the President of the United States by an associate justice or the district judge, it shall be lawful for the President of the United States to call forth the militia of such State to suppress such combinations and to cause the laws to be duly executed. And if the militia of a State where such combination may happen shall refuse or be insufficient to suppress the same, it shall be lawful for the President, if the legislature of the United States be not in session, to call forth and employ such numbers of the militia of any other State or States most convenient thereto as may be necessary; and the use of militia so to be called forth may be continued, if necessary, until the expiration of thirty days after the commencement of the ensuing session."

In 1795 this provision was substantially re-enacted in a law which repealed the act of 1792. In 1807 the following act became the law, by the approval of President Jefferson:

"That in all cases of insurrection or obstruction to the laws, either of the United States or of any individual State or Territory, where it is lawful for the President of the United States to call forth the militia for the purpose of suppressing such insurrection or of causing the laws to be duly executed, it shall be lawful for him to employ for the same purposes such part of the land or naval force of the United States as shall be judged necessary, having first observed all the prerequisites of the law in that respect."

By this act it will be seen that the scope of the law of 1795 was extended so as to authorize the national government to use not only the militia, but the army and navy of the United States, in "causing the laws to be executed."

The important provision of the acts of 1792, 1795, and 1807, modified in its terms from time to time to adapt it to the existing emergency, remained in force until, by an act approved by President Lincoln, July 29, 1861, it was re-enacted substantially in the same language in which it is now found in the *Revised Statutes*, viz.:

"Sec. 5,298. Whenever, by reason of unlawful obstructions, combinations, or assemblages of persons, or rebellion against the authority of the government of the United States, it shall become impracticable, in the judgment of the President, to enforce by the ordinary course of judicial proceedings the laws of the United States within any State or Territory, it shall be lawful for the President to call forth the militia of any or all the States and to employ such parts of the land and naval forces of the United States as he may deem necessary to enforce the faithful execution of the laws of the United States or to suppress such rebellion, in whatever State or Territory thereof the laws of the United States may be forcibly opposed or the execution thereof forcibly obstructed."

This ancient and fundamental law has been in force from the foundation of the government. It is now proposed to abrogate it on certain days and at certain places. In my judgment no fact has been produced which tends to show that it ought to be repealed or suspended for a single hour at any place in any of the States or Territories of the Union. All the teachings of experience in the course of our history are in favor of sustaining its efficiency unimpaired. On every occasion when the supremacy of the Constitution has been resisted and the perpetuity of our institutions imperilled, the principle of this statute, enacted by the fathers, has enabled the government of the Union to maintain its authority and to preserve the integrity of the nation.

At the most critical periods of our history my predecessors in the executive

office have relied on this great principle. It was on this principle that President Washington suppressed the Whiskey Rebellion in Pennsylvania in 1794.

In 1806, on the same principle, President Jefferson broke up the Burr conspiracy by issuing "orders for the employment of such force, either of the regulars or of the militia, and by such proceedings of the civil authorities, as might enable them to suppress effectually the further progress of the enterprise." And it was under the same authority that President Jackson crushed nullification in South Carolina, and that President Lincoln issued his call for troops to save the Union in 1861. On numerous other occasions of less significance, under probably every administration, and certainly under the present, this power has been successfully exerted to enforce the laws, without objection by any party in the country, and almost without attracting public attention.

The great elementary constitutional principle which was the foundation of the original statute of 1792, and which has been its essence in the various forms it has assumed since its first adoption, is that the government of the United States possesses, under the Constitution, in full measure, the power of self-protection by its own agencies, altogether independent of State authority, and, if need be, against the hostility of State governments. It should remain embodied in our statutes unimpaired, as it has been from the very origin of the government. It should be regarded as hardly less valuable or less sacred than a provision of the Constitution itself.

There are many other important statutes containing provisions that are liable to be suspended or annulled at the times and places of holding elections if the bill before me should become a law. I do not undertake to furnish a list of them. Many of them—perhaps the most of them—have been set forth in the debates on this measure. They relate to extradition, to crimes against the election laws, to quarantine regulations, to neutrality, to Indian reservations, to the civil rights of citizens, and to other subjects. In regard to them all it may be safely said that the meaning and effect of this bill is to take from the general government an important part of its power to enforce the laws.

Another grave objection to the bill is its discrimination in favor of the States and against the national authority. The presence or employment of the army or navy of the United States is lawful under the terms of this bill at the place where an election is being held in a State to uphold the authority of a State government then and there in need of such military intervention, but unlawful to uphold the authority of the government of the United States then and there in need of such military intervention. Under this bill the presence or employment of the army or navy of the United States would be lawful and might be necessary to maintain the conduct of a State election against the domestic violence that would overthrow it, but would be unlawful to maintain the conduct of a national election against the same local violence that would overthrow it. This discrimination has never been attempted in any previous legislation by Congress, and is no more compatible with sound principles of the Constitution or the necessary maxims and methods of our system of government on occasions of elections than at other times. In the early legislation of 1792, and of 1795, by which the militia of the States was the only military power resorted to for the execution of the constitutional powers in support of State or national authority, both functions of the government were put upon the same footing. By the act of 1807 the employment of the army and navy was authorized for the performance of both constitutional duties in the same terms.

In all later statutes on the same subject-matter the same measure of authority to the government has been accorded for the performance of both these duties. No precedent has been found in any previous legislation, and no sufficient reason has been given, for the discrimination in favor of the State and against the national authority which this bill contains.

Under the sweeping terms of the bill the national government is effectually shut out from the exercise of the right and from the discharge of the imperative duty to use its whole executive power

whenever and wherever required for the enforcement of its laws at the places and times when and where its elections are held. The employment of its organized armed forces for any purpose would be an offence against the law unless called for by, and therefore upon permission of, the authorities of the State in which the occasion arises. What is this but the substitution of the discretion of the State governments for the discretion of the government of the United States as to the performance of its own duties? In my judgment this is an abandonment of its obligations by the national government—a subordination of national authority and an intrusion of State supervision over national duties which amounts, in spirit and tendency, to State supremacy.

Though I believe that the existing statutes are abundantly adequate to completely prevent military interference with the elections in the sense in which the phrase is used in the title of this bill and is employed by the people of this country, I shall find no difficulty in concurring in any additional legislation limited to that object which does not interfere with the indispensable exercise of the powers of the government under the Constitution and laws.

Haymarket Massacre. See ANARCHISTS.

Hayne, ISAAC, patriot; born in South Carolina, Sept. 23, 1745; was appointed captain of artillery and State senator in 1780. He was made a prisoner at the capture of Charleston, and returned to his home on parole. Early in 1781 he was ordered to take up arms as a British subject or go to Charleston a prisoner, his wife and children then being dangerously sick with small-pox. He went to Charleston, where he was required to bear arms in support of the royal government or suffer close confinement. On being assured that if he would sign a declaration of allegiance to the British crown he would not be required to bear arms against his countrymen, he did so. Finally he was summoned to take up arms against his people in violation of the agreement. This dissolved all obligations, and he repaired to the American camp, received a commission as colonel, and was soon made a prisoner. Colonel Balfour, then the British commander in Charleston, hesitated about disposing of Hayne; but when Lord Rawdon arrived from Orangeburg, on his way to England, pursuant to the spirit of Cornwallis's orders he directed Colonel Hayne to be hung. This was done without even the form of a trial, on Aug. 4, 1781.

Hayne, PAUL HAMILTON, poet; born in Charleston, S. C., Jan. 1, 1830; graduated at the College of South Carolina in 1850; was connected with *Russell's Magazine*, *Charleston Literary Gazette*, *Southern Opinion*, and *Southern Society*. He participated in the attack on Fort Sumter, but was compelled to retire to private life on account of his health. He was called the Poet Laureate of the South. He died near Augusta, Ga., July 6, 1886.

HAYNE, ROBERT YOUNG

Hayne, ROBERT YOUNG, statesman; born near Charleston, S. C., Nov. 10, 1791; was admitted to the bar in 1812; and when his law tutor, Langdon Cheves, went to Congress he succeeded to his large practice. He rose rapidly, and in 1818 was attorney-general of South Carolina. He was United States Senator from 1823 to 1832, and was distinguished as an orator. In the latter year he and Daniel Webster had their famous debate on the tariff, during which Hayne declared the right of a State to nullify acts of the national government. In a State convention he drew up the ordinance of nullification; and when, the next year, he was governor of South Carolina, he maintained that right, and prepared for armed resistance. Clay's compromise allayed the fierce dispute. He died in Asheville, N. C., Sept. 24, 1839. See NULLIFICATION; WEBSTER, DANIEL.

Speech on Foote's Resolution.—On Jan. 21 and 25, 1830, Senator Hayne opened the great debate with Daniel Webster with the following speech (for the text of the resolution, see FOOTE, SAMUEL AUGUSTUS):

When I took occasion, Mr. President, two days ago, to throw out some ideas with respect to the policy of the govern-

ment in relation to the public lands, nothing certainly could have been further from my thoughts than that I should be compelled again to throw myself upon the indulgence of the Senate. Little did I expect to be called upon to meet such an argument as was yesterday urged by the gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Webster). Sir, I questioned no man's opinions, I impeached no man's motives, I charged no party, or State, or section of country with hostility to any other; but ventured, I thought in a becoming spirit, to put forth my own sentiments in relation to a great national question of public policy. Such was my course. The gentleman from Missouri [Mr. Benton], it is true, had charged upon the Eastern States an early and continued hostility towards the West, and referred to a number of historical facts and documents in support of that charge. Now, sir, how have these different arguments been met? The honorable gentleman from Massachusetts, after deliberating a whole night upon his course, comes into this chamber to vindicate New England; and, instead of making up his issue with the gentleman from Missouri on the charges which he had preferred, chooses to consider me as the author of these charges, and, losing sight entirely of that gentleman, selects me as his adversary and pours out all the vials of his mighty wrath upon my devoted head. Nor is he willing to stop there. He goes on to assail the institutions and policy of the South, and calls in question the principles and conduct of the State which I have the honor to represent. When I find a gentleman of mature age and experience, of acknowledged talents and profound sagacity, pursuing a course like this, declining the contest from the West and making war upon the unoffending South, I must believe, I am bound to believe, he has some object in view that he has not ventured to disclose. Mr. President, why is this? Has the gentleman found in former controversies with the gentleman from Missouri that he is overmatched by that Senator? And does he hope for an easy victory over a more feeble adversary? Has the gentleman's distempered fancy been disturbed by gloomy forebodings of "new alliances to be formed," at which he hinted? Has the ghost of the murdered coalition come back, like the ghost of Banquo, to "sear the eyeballs" of the gentleman, and will it not "down at his bidding?" Are dark visions of broken hopes and honors lost forever still floating before his heated imagination? Sir, if it be his object to thrust me between the gentleman from Missouri and himself, in order to rescue the East from the contest it has provoked with the West, he shall not be gratified. Sir, I will not be dragged into the defence of my friend from Missouri. The South shall not be forced into a conflict not its own. The gentleman from Missouri is able to fight his own battles. The gallant West needs no aid from the South to repel any attack which may be made on them from any quarter. Let the gentleman from Massachusetts controvert the facts and arguments of the gentleman from Missouri if he can; and if he win the victory, let him wear its honors; I shall not deprive him of his laurels.

The gentleman from Massachusetts, in reply to my remarks on the injurious operations of our land system on the prosperity of the West, pronounced an extravagant eulogium on the paternal care which the government had extended towards the West, to which he attributed all that was great and excellent in the present condition of the new States. The language of the gentleman on this topic fell upon my ears like the almost forgotten tones of the Tory leaders of the British Parliament at the commencement of the American Revolution. They, too, discovered that the colonies had grown great under the fostering care of the mother country; and I must confess, while listening to the gentleman, I thought the appropriate reply to his argument was to be found in the remark of a celebrated orator, made on that occasion: "They have grown great in spite of your protection."

The gentleman, in commenting on the policy of the government in relation to the new States, has introduced to our notice a certain Nathan Dane, of Massachusetts, to whom he attributes the celebrated ordinance of '87, by which he tells us "slavery was forever excluded from the new States north of the Ohio." After eulogizing the wisdom of this provision in terms of the

most extravagant praise, he breaks forth in admiration of the greatness of Nathan Dane; and great indeed he must be, if it be true, as stated by the Senator from Massachusetts, that "he was greater than Solon and Lycurgus, Minos, Numa Pompilius, and all the legislators and philosophers of the world," ancient and modern. Sir, to such high authority it is certainly my duty, in a becoming spirit of humility, to submit. And yet the gentleman will pardon me when I say that it is a little unfortunate for the fame of this great legislator that the gentleman from Missouri should have proved that he was not the author of the ordinance of '87, on which the Senator from Massachusetts has reared so glorious a monument to his name. Sir, I doubt not the Senator will feel some compassion for our ignorance when I tell him that so little are we acquainted with the modern great men of New England that, until he informed us yesterday that we possessed a Solon and a Lycurgus in the person of Nathan Dane, he was only known to the South as a member of a celebrated assembly called and known by the name of the "Hartford Convention." In the proceedings of that assembly, which I hold in my hand (at page 19), will be found, in a few lines, the history of Nathan Dane; and a little further on there is conclusive evidence of that ardent devotion to the interest of the new States which, it seems, has given him a just claim to the title of "Father of the West." By the second resolution of the "Hartford Convention" it is declared "that it is expedient to attempt to make provision for restraining Congress in the exercise of unlimited power to make new States, and admit them into this Union." So much for Nathan Dane, of Beverly, Mass.

In commenting upon my views in relation to the public lands, the gentleman insists that, it being one of the conditions of the grants that these lands should be applied to "the common benefit of all the States, they must always remain a fund for revenue"; and adds, "they must be treated as so much treasure." Sir, the gentleman could hardly find language strong enough to convey his disapprobation of the policy which I have ventured to recommend to the favorable consideration of the country. And what, sir, was that policy, and what is the difference between that gentleman and myself on this subject? I threw out the idea that the public lands ought not to be reserved forever as "a great fund for revenue"; that they ought not to be treated "as a great treasure"; but that the course of our policy should rather be directed towards the creation of new States, and building up great and flourishing communities.

Now, sir, will it be believed, by those who now hear me, and who listened to the gentleman's denunciation of my doctrines yesterday, that a book lay open before him—nay, that he held it in his hand and read from it certain passages of his own speech delivered to the House of Representatives in 1825, in which speech he himself contended for the very doctrines I had advocated, and almost in the very same terms? Here is the speech of the Hon. Daniel Webster, contained in the first volume of Gales and Seaton's *Register of Debates* (page 251), delivered in the House of Representatives on Jan. 18, 1825, in a debate on the Cumberland Road—the very debate from which the Senator read yesterday. I shall read from the celebrated speech two passages, from which it will appear that, both as to the past and the future policy of the government in relation to the public lands, the gentleman from Massachusetts maintained in 1825 substantially the same opinions which I have advanced, but which he now so strongly reprobates. I said, sir, that the system of credit sales by which the West had been kept constantly in debt to the United States, and by which their wealth was drained off to be expended elsewhere, had operated injuriously on their prosperity. On this point the gentleman from Massachusetts in January, 1825, expressed himself thus: "There could be no doubt, if gentlemen looked at the money received into the treasury from the sale of the public lands to the West, and then looked to the whole amount expended by government (even including the whole amount of what was laid out for the army), the latter must be allowed to be very inconsiderable, and there must be a constant drain of money from the West to pay for the public lands. It might indeed be said that this was no

more than the refluence of capital which had previously gone over the mountains. Be it so. Still its practical effect was to produce inconvenience, if not distress, by absorbing the money of the people."

I contended that the public lands ought not to be treated merely as "a fund for revenue"; that they ought not to be hoarded "as a great treasure." On this point the Senator expressed himself thus: Government, he believed, had received eighteen or twenty millions of dollars from the public lands, and it was with the greatest satisfaction he adverted to the change which had been introduced in the mode of paying for them; yet he could never think the national domain was to be regarded as any great source of revenue. The great object of the government, in respect to these lands, was not so much the money derived from their sale as it was the getting them settled. What he meant to say was, he did not think they ought to hug that domain as a great treasure which was to enrich the exchequer.

Now, Mr. President, it will be seen that the very doctrines which the gentleman so indignantly abandons were urged by him in 1825; and if I had actually borrowed my sentiments from those which he then avowed, I could not have followed more closely in his footsteps. Sir, it is only since the gentleman quoted this book, yesterday, that my attention has been turned to the sentiments he expressed in 1825; and if I had remembered them, I might possibly have been deterred from uttering sentiments here which, it might well be supposed, I had borrowed from that gentleman.

In 1825 the gentleman told the world that the public lands "ought not to be treated as a treasure." He now tells us that "they must be treated as so much treasure." What the deliberate opinion of the gentleman on this subject may be, belongs not to me to determine; but I do not think he can, with the shadow of justice or propriety, impugn my sentiments, while his own recorded opinions are identical with my own. When the gentleman refers to the conditions of the grants under which the United States have acquired these lands, and insists that, as they are declared to be "for the common benefit of all the States," they can only be treated as so much treasure, I think he has applied a rule of construction too narrow for the case. If, in the deeds of cession, it has been declared that the grants were intended "for the common benefit of all the States," it is clear, from other provisions, that they were not intended merely as so much property; for it is expressly declared that the object of the grants is the erection of new States; and the United States, in accepting this trust, bind themselves to facilitate the foundation of those States, to be admitted into the Union with all the rights and privileges of the original States.

This, sir, was the great end to which all parties looked, and it is by the fulfilment of this high trust that "the common benefit of all the States" is to be best promoted. Sir, let me tell the gentleman that in the part of the country in which I live, we do not measure political benefits by the money standard. We consider as more valuable than gold, liberty, principle, and justice. But, sir, if we are bound to act on the narrow principles contended for by the gentleman, I am wholly at a loss to conceive how he can reconcile his principles with his own practice. The lands are, it seems, to be treated "as so much treasure," and must be applied to the "common benefits of all the States." Now, if this be so, whence does he derive the right to appropriate them for partial and local objects? How can the gentleman consent to vote away immense bodies of these lands for canals in Indiana and Illinois, to the Louisville and Portland canal, to Kenyon College in Ohio, to schools for the deaf and dumb, and other objects of a similar description? If grants of this character can fairly be considered as made "for the common benefit of all the States," it can only be because all the States are interested in the welfare of each—a principle which, carried to the full extent, destroys all distinction between local and national objects, and is certainly broad enough to embrace the principles for which I have ventured to contend. Sir, the true difference between us I take to be this: the gentleman wishes to treat the public lands as a great treasure, just as so

much money in the treasury, to be applied to all objects, constitutional and unconstitutional, to which the public money is now constantly applied. I consider it as a sacred trust which we ought to fulfil on the principles for which I have contended.

The Senator from Massachusetts has thought proper to present, in strong contrast, the friendly feelings of the East towards the West, with sentiments of an opposite character displayed by the South in relation to appropriations for internal improvement. Now, sir, let it be recollected that the South have made no professions (I have certainly made none in their behalf) of regard for the West. It has been reserved to the gentleman from Massachusetts, while he vaunts his own personal devotion to Western interests, to claim for the entire section of country to which he belongs an ardent friendship for the West, as manifested by their support of the system of internal improvement, while he casts in our teeth the reproach that the South has manifested hostility to Western interests in opposing appropriations for such objects. That gentleman, at the same time, acknowledged that the South entertains constitutional scruples on this subject. Are we, then, sir, to understand that the gentleman considers it a just subject of reproach that we respect our oaths by which we are bound "to preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States"? Would the gentleman have us manifest our love to the West by trampling under foot our constitutional scruples? Does he not perceive, if the South is to be reproached with unkindness to the West in voting against appropriations which the gentleman admits they could not vote for without doing violence to their constitutional opinions, that he exposes himself to the question whether, if he were in our situation, he could vote for these appropriations, regardless of his scruples? No, sir, I will not do the gentleman so great injustice. He has fallen into this error from not having duly weighed the force and effect of the reproach which he was endeavoring to cast upon the South. In relation to the other point, the friendship manifested by New England towards the West in their support of the system of internal improvement, the gentleman will pardon me for saying that I think he is equally unfortunate in having introduced that topic. As that gentleman has forced it upon us, however, I cannot suffer it to pass unnoticed. When the gentleman tells us that the appropriations for internal improvements in the West would, in almost every instance, have failed but for the New England votes, he has forgotten to tell us the when, the how, and the wherefore of this new-born zeal for the West sprung up in the bosoms of New England. If we look back only a few years, we will find in both Houses of Congress a uniform and steady opposition on the part of the members from the Eastern States generally to all appropriations of this character. At the time I became a member of this House, and for some time afterwards, a decided majority of the New England Senators were opposed to the very measures which the Senator from Massachusetts tells us they now cordially support. Sir, the *Journals* are before me, and an examination of them will satisfy every gentleman of that fact.

It must be well known to every one whose experience dates back as far as 1825 that, up to a certain period, New England was generally opposed to preparations for internal improvements in the West. The gentleman from Massachusetts may be himself an exception, but if he went for the system before 1825 it is certain that his colleagues did not go with him. In the session of 1824 and 1825, however (a memorable era in the history of this country), a wonderful change took place in New England in relation to Western interests. Sir, an extraordinary union of sympathies and of interest was then effected, which brought the East and the West into close alliance. The book from which I have before read contains the first public annunciation of that happy reconciliation of conflicting interests, personal and political, which brought the East and West together, and locked in a fraternal embrace the two great orators of the East and the West. Sir, it was on Jan. 18, 1825, while the result of the Presidential election, in the House of Representatives, was still doubtful, while the whole country was looking with intense anxiety to that legislative hall where the

mighty drama was so soon to be acted, that we saw the leaders of two great parties in the House and in the nation "taking sweet counsel together," and in a celebrated debate on the Cumberland Road fighting side by side for Western interests. It was on that memorable occasion that the Senator from Massachusetts held out the white flag to the West, and uttered those liberal sentiments which he yesterday so indignantly repudiated. Then it was that that happy union between the members of the celebrated coalition was consummated, whose immediate issue was a President from one quarter of the Union, with a succession (as it was supposed) secured to another. The "American system," before a rude, disjointed, and misshapened mass, now assumed form and consistency. Then it was that it became "the settled policy of the government" that this system should be so administered as to create a reciprocity of interests and a reciprocal distribution of government favors, East and West (the tariff and internal improvements), while the South—yes, sir, the impracticable South—was to be "out of your protection." The gentleman may boast as much as he pleases of the friendship of New England for the West, as displayed in their support of internal improvement; but when he next introduces that topic I trust that he will tell us when that friendship commenced, how it was brought about, and why it was established. Before I leave this topic I must be permitted to say that the true character of the policy now pursued by the gentleman from Massachusetts and his friends, in relation to appropriations of land and money for the benefit of the West, is, in my estimation, very similar to that pursued by Jacob of old towards his brother Esau: "It robs them of their birthright for a mess of pottage."

The gentleman from Massachusetts, in alluding to a remark of mine that, before any disposition could be made of the public lands, the national debt, for which they stand pledged, must be first paid, took occasion to intimate "that the extraordinary fervor which seems to exist in a certain quarter (meaning the South, sir) for the payment of the debt arises from a disposition to weaken the ties which bind the people of the Union." While the gentleman deals us this blow, he professes an ardent desire to see the debt speedily extinguished. He must excuse me, however, for feeling some distrust on that subject until I find this disposition manifested by something stronger than professions. I shall look for acts, decided and unequivocal acts, for the performance of which an opportunity will very soon (if I am not greatly mistaken) be afforded. Sir, if I were at liberty to judge of the course which that gentleman would pursue, from the principles which he has laid down in relation to this matter, I should be bound to conclude that he will be found acting with those with whom it is a darling object to prevent the payment of the public debt. He tells us he is desirous of paying the debt, "because we are under an obligation to discharge it." Now, sir, suppose it should happen that the public creditors, with whom we have contracted the obligation, should release us from it, so far as to declare their willingness to wait for payment for fifty years to come, provided only the interest shall be punctually discharged. The gentleman from Massachusetts will then be released from the obligation which now makes him desirous of paying the debt; and, let me tell the gentleman, the holders of the stock will not only release us from this obligation, but they will implore, nay, they will even pay us not to pay them. "But," adds the gentleman, "so far as the debt may have an effect in binding the debtors to the country, and thereby serving as a link to hold the States together, he would be glad that it should exist forever." Surely then, sir, on the gentleman's own principles, he must be opposed to the payment of the debt.

Sir, let me tell that gentleman that the South repudiates the idea that a pecuniary dependence on the federal government is one of the legitimate means of holding the States together. A moneyed interest in the government is essentially a base interest; and just so far as it operates to bind the feelings of those who are subjected to it to the government—just so far as it operates in creating sympathies and interests that would not otherwise exist—is it opposed to all the principles of free government, and at war with virtue and patriotism. Sir, the link which binds the public creditors, as such, to their country

binds them equally to all governments, whether arbitrary or free. In a free government this principle of abject dependence, if extended through all the ramifications of society, must be fatal to liberty. Already have we made alarming strides in that direction. The entire class of manufacturers, the holders of stocks, with their hundreds of millions of capital, are held to the government by the strong link of pecuniary interests; millions of people—entire sections of country, interested, or believing themselves to be so, in the public lands and the public treasure—are bound to the government by the expectation of pecuniary favors. If this system is carried much further, no man can fail to see that every generous motive of attachment to the country will be destroyed, and in its place will spring up those low, grovelling, base, and selfish feelings which bind men to the footstool of a despot by bonds as strong and enduring as those which attach them to free institutions. Sir, I would lay the foundation of this government in the affections of the people. I would teach them to cling to it by dispensing equal justice, and, above all, by securing the "blessings of liberty" to "themselves and to their posterity."

The honorable gentleman from Massachusetts has gone out of his way to pass a high eulogium on the State of Ohio. In the most impassioned tones of eloquence he described her majestic march to greatness. He told us that, having already left all the other States far behind, she was now passing by Virginia and Pennsylvania, and about to take her station by the side of New York. To all this, sir, I was disposed most cordially to respond. When, however, the gentleman proceeded to contrast the State of Ohio with Kentucky, to the disadvantage of the latter, I listened to him with regret; and when he proceeded further to attribute the great and, as he supposed, acknowledged superiority of the former in population, wealth, and general prosperity to the policy of Nathan Dane, of Massachusetts, which had secured to the people of Ohio (by the ordinance of '87) a population of freemen, I will confess that my feelings suffered a revulsion which I am now unable to describe in any language sufficiently respectful towards the gentleman from Massachusetts. In contrasting the State of Ohio with Kentucky, for the purpose of pointing out the superiority of the former, and of attributing that superiority to the existence of slavery in the one State and its absence in the other, I thought I could discern the very spirit of the Missouri question intruded into this debate for objects best known to the gentleman himself. Did that gentleman, sir, when he formed the determination to cross the Southern border to invade the State of South Carolina, deem it prudent or necessary to enlist under his banners the prejudices of the world, which, like Swiss troops, may be engaged in any cause, and are prepared to serve under any leader? Did he desire to avail himself of those remorseless allies, the passions of mankind, of which it may be more truly said than of the savage tribes of the wilderness that their "known rule of warfare is an indiscriminate slaughter of all ages, sexes, and conditions"? Or was it supposed, sir, that, in a premeditated and unprovoked attack upon the South, it was advisable to begin by a gentle admonition of our supposed weakness, in order to prevent us from making that firm and manly resistance due to our own character and our dearest interests? Was the significant hint of the weakness of slave-holding States, when contrasted with the superior strength of free States—like the glare of the weapon half drawn from its scabbard—intended to enforce the lessons of prudence and of patriotism which the gentleman had resolved, out of his abundant generosity, gratuitously to bestow upon us? Mr. President, the impression which has gone abroad of the weakness of the South, as connected with the slave question, exposes us to such constant attacks, has done us so much injury, and is calculated to produce such infinite mischiefs, that I embrace the occasion presented by the remarks of the gentleman from Massachusetts to declare that we are ready to meet the question promptly and fearlessly. It is one from which we are not disposed to shrink, in whatever form or under whatever circumstances it may be pressed upon us.

We are ready to make up the issue with the gentleman as to the influence of

slavery on individual and national character—on the prosperity and greatness either of the United States or of particular States. Sir, when arraigned before the bar of public opinion on this charge of slavery, we can stand up with conscious rectitude, plead not guilty, and put ourselves upon God and our country. Sir, we will not consent to look at slavery in the abstract. We will not stop to inquire whether the black man, as some philosophers have contended, is of an inferior race, nor whether his color and condition are the effects of a curse inflicted for the offences of his ancestors. We deal in no abstractions. We will not look back to inquire whether our fathers were guiltless in introducing slaves into this country. If an inquiry should ever be instituted into these matters, however, it will be found that the profits of the slave-trade were not confined to the South. Southern ships and Southern sailors were not the instruments of bringing slaves to the shores of America, nor did our merchants reap the profits of the "accursed traffic." But, sir, we will pass over all this. If slavery, as it now exists in this country, be an evil, we of the present day found it ready made to our hands. Finding our lot cast among a people whom God had manifestly committed to our care, we did not sit down to speculate on abstract questions of theoretical liberty. We met it as a practical question of obligation and duty. We resolved to make the best of the situation in which Providence had placed us, and to fulfil the high trust which had devolved upon us as the owners of slaves, in the only way in which such a trust could be fulfilled without spreading misery and ruin throughout the land. We found that we had to deal with a people whose physical, moral, and intellectual habits and character totally disqualified them for the enjoyment of the blessings of freedom. We could not send them back to the shores from whence their fathers had been taken; their number forbade the thought, even if we did not know that their condition here is infinitely preferable to what it possibly could be among the barren sands and savage tribes of Africa; and it was wholly irreconcilable with all our notions of humanity to tear asunder the tender ties which they had formed among us, to gratify the feeling of a false philanthropy. What a commentary on the wisdom, justice, and humanity of the Southern slave-owner is presented by the example of certain benevolent associations and charitable individuals elsewhere! Shedding weak tears over sufferings which had existed only in their own sickly imaginations, these "friends of humanity" set themselves systematically to work to seduce the slaves of the South from their masters. By means of missionaries and political tracts, the scheme was in a great measure successful. Thousands of these deluded victims of fanaticism were seduced into the enjoyment of freedom in our Northern cities. And what has been the consequences? Go to these cities now and ask the question. Visit the dark and narrow lanes, and obscure recesses, which have been assigned by common consent as the abodes of those outcasts of the world, the free people of color. Sir, there does not exist, on the face of the whole earth, a population so poor, so wretched, so vile, so loathsome, so utterly destitute of all the comforts, conveniences, and decencies of life, as the unfortunate blacks of Philadelphia and New York and Boston. Liberty has been to them the greatest of calamities, the heaviest of curses. Sir, I have had some opportunities of making comparison between the condition of the free negroes of the North and the slaves of the South, and the comparison has left not only an indelible impression of the superior advantages of the latter, but has gone far to reconcile me to slavery itself. Never have I felt so forcibly that touching description, "the foxes have holes, and the birds of the air have nests, but the Son of man hath not where to lay his head," as when I have seen this unhappy race, naked and houseless, almost starving in the streets, and abandoned by all the world. Sir, I have seen in the neighborhood of one of the most moral, religious, and refined cities of the North a family of free blacks driven to the caves of the rock, and there obtaining a precarious subsistence from charity and plunder.

When the gentleman from Massachusetts adopts and reiterates the old charge

of weakness as resulting from slavery, I must be permitted to call for the proof of those blighting effects which he ascribes to its influence. I suspect that when the subject is closely examined, it will be found that there is not much force even in the plausible objection of the want of physical power in slave-holding States. The power of a country is compounded of its population and its wealth; and in modern times, where, from the very form and structure of society, by far the greater portion of the people must, even during the continuance of the most desolating wars, be employed in the cultivation of the soil and other peaceful pursuits, it may be well doubted whether slave-holding States, by reason of the superior value of their productions, are not able to maintain a number of troops in the field fully equal to what could be supported by States with a larger white population but not possessed of equal resources.

It is a popular error to suppose that in any possible state of things the people of a country could ever be called out *en masse*, that a half, or a third, or even a fifth part of the physical force of any country could ever be brought into the field. The difficulty is not to procure men, but to provide the means for maintaining them; and in this view of the subject it may be asked whether the Southern States are not a source of strength and power, and not of weakness, to the country—whether they have not contributed and are not now contributing largely to the wealth and prosperity of every State in this Union. From a statement which I hold in my hand it appears that in ten years, from 1818 to 1827 inclusive, the whole amount of the domestic exports of the United States was $521,811,045; of which three articles (the product of slave-labor), viz., cotton, rice, and tobacco, amounted to $339,203,232, equal to about two-thirds of the whole. It is not true, as has been supposed, that the advantages of this labor are confined almost exclusively to the Southern States. Sir, I am thoroughly convinced that, at this time, the States north of the Potomac actually derive greater profits from the labors of our slaves than we do ourselves. It appears from our public documents that in seven years, from 1821 to 1827 inclusive, the six Southern States exported $190,337,281 and imported only $55,646,301. Now, the difference between these two sums (near $140,000,000) passed through the hands of the Northern merchants, and enabled them to carry on their commercial operations with all the world. Such part of these goods as found its way back to our hands came charged with the duties, as well as the profits, of the merchant, the ship-owner, and a host of others who found employment in carrying on these immense exchanges; and for such part as was consumed at the North we received in exchange Northern manufactures, charged with an increased price, to cover all the taxes which the Northern consumer has been compelled to pay on the imported article. It will be seen, therefore, at a glance, how much slave-labor has contributed to the wealth and prosperity of the United States, and how largely our Northern brethren have participated in the profits of that labor. Sir, on this subject I will quote an authority which will, I doubt not, be considered by the Senator from Massachusetts as entitled to high respect. It is from the great father of the "American system," honest Matthew Carey, no great friend, it is true, at this time, to Southern rights and Southern interests, but not the worst authority, on that account, on the point in question.

Speaking of the relative importance to the Union of the Southern and the Eastern States, Matthew Carey, in the sixth edition of his *Olive Branch* (page 278), after exhibiting a number of statistical tables to show the decided superiority of the former, thus proceeds:

"But I am tired of this investigation. I sicken for the honor of the human species. What idea must the world form of the arrogance of the pretensions of the one side (the East), and, on the other, of the folly and weakness of the rest of the Union, to have so long suffered them to pass without exposure and detection? The naked fact is that the demagogues in the Eastern States, not satisfied with deriving all the benefits from the Southern section of the Union that they would from so many wealthy colonies, with making princely fortunes by the carriage and exportation of its bulky and valuable pro-

ductions and supplying it with their own manufactures and the products of Europe and the East and West Indies, to an enormous amount and at an immense profit, have uniformly treated it with outrage, insult, and injury. And, regardless of their vital interests, the Eastern States were lately courting their own destruction by allowing a few restless, turbulent men to lead them blindfolded to a separation which was pregnant with their certain ruin. Whenever that event takes place, they will sink to their native insignificance. If a separation were desirable to any part of the Union it would be to the Middle and Southern States, particularly the latter, who have been so long harassed with the complaints, the restlessness, the turbulence, and the ingratitude of the Eastern States, that their patience has been tried almost beyond endurance. 'Jeshurun waxed fat, and kicked.' And he will be severely punished for his kicking in the event of a dissolution of the Union."

Sir, I wish it to be distinctly understood that I do not adopt these sentiments as my own. I quote them to show that very different sentiments have prevailed in former times as to the weakness of the slave-holding States from those which now seem to have become fashionable in certain quarters. I know it has been supposed by certain ill-informed persons that the South exists only by the countenance and protection of the North. Sir, this is the idlest of all idle and ridiculous fancies that ever entered into the mind of man. In every State of this Union, except one, the free white population actually preponderates; while in the British West India islands (where the average white population is less than 10 per cent. of the whole) the slaves are kept in entire subjection, it is preposterous to suppose that the Southern States could ever find the smallest difficulty in this respect. On this subject, as on all others, we ask nothing of our Northern brethren but to "let us alone." Leave us to the undisturbed management of our domestic concerns, and the direction of our own industry, and we will ask no more. Sir, all our difficulties on this subject have arisen from interference from abroad, which has disturbed and may again disturb our domestic tranquillity just so far as to bring down punishment upon the heads of the unfortunate victims of a fanatical and mistaken humanity.

There is a spirit which, like the father of evil, is constantly "walking to and fro about the earth, seeking whom it may devour"; it is the spirit of False Philanthropy. The persons whom it possesses do not indeed throw themselves into the flames, but they are employed in lighting up the torches of discord throughout the community. Their first principle of action is to leave their own affairs, and neglect their own duties, to regulate the affairs and duties of others. Theirs is the task to feed the hungry and clothe the naked of other lands, while they thrust the naked, famished, and shivering beggar from their own doors; to instruct the heathen, while their own children want the bread of life. When this spirit infuses itself into the bosom of a statesman (if one so possessed can be called a statesman) it converts him at once into a visionary enthusiast. Then it is that he indulges in golden dreams of national greatness and prosperity. He discovers that "liberty is power," and not content with vast schemes of improvement at home, which it would bankrupt the treasury of the world to execute, he flies to foreign lands to fulfil obligations to "the hungry race" by inculcating the principles of "political and religious liberty," and promoting the "general welfare" of the whole human race. It is a spirit which has long been busy with the slaves of the South, and is even now displaying itself in vain efforts to drive the government from its wise policy in relation to the Indians. It is this spirit which has filled the land with thousands of wild and visionary projects, which can have no effect but to waste the energies and dissipate the resources of the country. It is the spirit of which the aspiring politician dexterously avails himself when, by inscribing on his banner the magical words Liberty and Philanthropy, he draws to his support that entire class of persons who are ready to bow down to the very names of their idols.

But, sir, whatever difference of opinion may exist as to the effect of slavery on national wealth and prosperity, if we may trust to experience, there can be no doubt

that it has never yet produced any injurious effect on individual or national character. Look through the whole history of the country, from the commencement of the Revolution down to the present hour; where are there to be found brighter examples of intellectual and moral greatness than have been exhibited by the sons of the South? From the Father of his Country down to the distinguished chieftain who has been elevated by a grateful people to the highest office in their gift, the interval is filled up by a long line of orators, of statesmen, and of heroes, justly entitled to rank among the ornaments of their country and the benefactors of mankind. Look at the Old Dominion, the great and magnanimous Virginia, "whose jewels are her sons." Is there any State in this Union which has contributed so much to the honor and welfare of the country? Sir, I will yield the whole question; I will acknowledge the fatal effects of slavery upon character, if any one can say that for noble disinterestedness, ardent love of country, exalted virtue, and a pure and holy devotion to liberty, the people of the Southern States have ever been surpassed by any in the world. I know, sir, that this devotion to liberty has sometimes been supposed to be at war with our institutions; but it is in some degree the result of those very institutions. Burke, the most philosophical of statesmen, as he was the most accomplished of orators, well understood the operation of this principle in elevating the sentiments and exalting the principles of the people in the slave-holding States. I will conclude my remarks on this branch of the subject by reading a few passages from his speech "On moving his resolutions for conciliation with the colonies," March 22, 1775:

"There is a circumstance attending these (the Southern) colonies which . . . makes the spirit of liberty still more high and haughty than in those to the northward. It is that in Virginia and the Carolinas they have a vast number of slaves. Where this is the case in any part of the world, those who are free are by far the most proud and jealous of their freedom. Freedom is to them not only enjoyment, but a kind of rank and privilege. Not seeing there that freedom, as in countries where it is a common blessing and as broad and general as the air, may be united with much abject toil, with great misery, with all the exterior of servitude, liberty looks among them like something that is more noble and liberal. I do not mean, sir, to commend the superior morality of this sentiment, which has at least as much pride as virtue in it; but I cannot alter the nature of man. The fact is so, and these people of the Southern colonies are much more strongly, and with a higher and more stubborn spirit, attached to liberty than those to the northward. Such were all the ancient commonwealths; such were our Gothic ancestors; such in our days were the Poles; and such will be all masters of slaves who are not slaves themselves. In such a people the haughtiness of domination combines with the spirit of freedom, fortifies it, and renders it invincible."

In the course of my former remarks, Mr. President [Probably the beginning of his speech of the second day.—EDITOR], I took occasion to deprecate, as one of the greatest evils, *the consolidation of this government.* The gentleman takes alarm at the sound. "Consolidation," like the tariff, grates upon his ear. He tells us "we have heard much of late about consolidation; that it is the rallying word for all who are endeavoring to weaken the Union by adding to the power of the States." But consolidation (says the gentleman) was the very object for which the Union was formed; and, in support of that opinion, he read a passage from the address of the president of the convention to Congress, which he assumes to be an authority on his side of the question. But, sir, the gentleman is mistaken. The object of the framers of the Constitution, as disclosed in that address, was not the consolidation of the government, but "the consolidation of the Union." It was not to draw power from the State in order to transfer it to a great national government, but, in the language of the Constitution itself, "to form a more perfect Union"—and by what means? By "establishing justice, promoting domestic tranquillity, and securing the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity."

This is the true reading of the Constitution. But, according to the gentleman's reading, the object of the Constitution was to consolidate the government, and the means would seem to be, the promotion of injustice, causing domestic discord, and depriving the States and the people of "the blessings of liberty" forever.

The gentleman boasts of belonging to the party of National Republicans. National Republicans! A new name, sir, for a very old thing. The National Republicans of the present day were the Federalists of '98, who became Federal Republicans during the War of 1812, and were manufactured into National Republicans somewhere about the year 1825. As a party (by whatever name distinguished) they have always been animated by the same principles, and have kept steadily in view a common object, the consolidation of the government. Sir, the party to which I am proud of having belonged, from the very commencement of my political life to the present day, were the Democrats of '98 (Anarchists, Anti-Federalists, Revolutionists, I think they were sometimes called). They assumed the name of Democratic-Republicans in 1812, and have retained their name and principles up to the present hour. True to their political faith, they have always, as a party, been in favor of limitations of power; they have insisted that all powers not delegated to the federal government are reserved, and have been constantly struggling, as they are now, to preserve the rights of the States, and to prevent them from being drawn into the vortex, and swallowed up by one great consolidated government.

Sir, any one acquainted with the history of the parties in this country will recognize in the points now in dispute between the Senator from Massachusetts and myself the very grounds which have, from the beginning, divided the two great parties in this country, and which (call those parties by what names you will, and amalgamate them as you may) will divide them forever. The true distinction between these parties is laid down in a celebrated manifesto, issued by the convention of the Federalists of Massachusetts, assembled in Boston, in February, 1824, on the occasion of organizing a party opposition to the re-election of Governor Eustis. The gentleman will recognize this as "the canonical book of political scripture"; and it instructs us that, "when the American colonies redeemed themselves from British bondage, and became so many independent nations, they proposed to form a national Union (not a federal Union, sir, but a national Union). Those who were in favor of a union of the States in this form became known by the name of Federalists; those who wanted no union of the States, or disliked the proposed form of union, became known by the name of Anti-Federalists. By means which need not be enumerated, the Anti-Federalists became (after the expiration of twelve years) our national rulers, and for a period of sixteen years, until the close of Mr. Madison's administration in 1817, continued to exercise the exclusive direction of our public affairs." Here, sir, is the true history of the origin, rise, and progress of the party of National Republicans, who date back to the very origin of the government, and who then, as now, chose to consider the Constitution as having created not a federal but a national Union; who regarded "consolidation" as no evil, and who doubtless consider it a "consummation devoutly to be wished" to build up a great "central government," "one and indivisible." Sir, there have existed in every age and every country two distinct orders of men—the lovers of freedom, and the devoted advocates of power.

The same great leading principles, modified only by peculiarities of manners, habits, and institutions, divided parties in the ancient republics, animated the Whigs and Tories of Great Britain, distinguished in our own times the Liberals and Ultras of France, and may be traced even in the bloody struggles of unhappy Spain. Sir, when the gallant Riego, who devoted himself and all that he possessed to the liberties of his country, was dragged to the scaffold, followed by the tears and lamentations of every lover of freedom throughout the world, he perished amid the deafening cries of "Long live the absolute king!" The people whom I represent, Mr. President, are the descendants of those who

brought with them to this country, as the most precious of their possessions, "an ardent love of liberty," and while that shall be preserved, they will always be found struggling manfully against the consolidation of the government AS THE WORST OF EVILS.

The Senator from Massachusetts, in alluding to the tariff, becomes quite facetious. He tells us that "he hears of nothing but tariff, tariff, tariff; and, if a word could be found to rhyme with it, he presumes it would be celebrated in verse and set to music." Sir, perhaps, the gentleman, in mockery of our complaints, may be himself disposed to sing the praises of the tariff, in doggerel verse, to the tune of *Old Hundred*. I am not at all surprised, however, at the aversion of the gentleman to the very name of tariff. I doubt not that it must always bring up some very unpleasant recollections to his mind. If I am not greatly mistaken, the Senator from Massachusetts was a leading actor at a great meeting got up in Boston in 1820 against the tariff. It has generally been supposed that he drew up the resolutions adopted by that meeting denouncing the tariff system as unequal, oppressive, and unjust, and, if I am not much mistaken, denying its constitutionality. Certain it is that the gentleman made a speech on that occasion in support of those resolutions, denouncing the system in no very measured terms, and, if my memory serves me, calling its constitutionality in question. I regret that I have not been able to lay hands on those proceedings; but I have seen them, and cannot be mistaken in their character. At that time, sir, the Senator from Massachusetts entertained the very sentiments in relation to the tariff which the South now entertains. We next find the Senator from Massachusetts expressing his opinion on the tariff as a member of the House of Representatives from the city of Boston, in 1824. On that occasion, sir, the gentleman assumed a position which commanded the respect and admiration of his country. He stood forth the powerful and fearless champion of free-trade. He met, in that conflict, the advocates of restriction and monopoly, and they "fled from before his face." With a profound sagacity, a fulness of knowledge, and a richness of illustration that have never been surpassed, he maintained and established the principles of commercial freedom on a foundation never to be shaken. Great indeed was the victory achieved by the gentleman on that occasion; most striking the contrast between the clear, forcible, and convincing arguments by which he carried away the understandings of his hearers, and the narrow views and wretched sophistry of another distinguished orator, who may be truly said to have held up his "farthing candle to the sun."

Sir, the Senator from Massachusetts, on that, the proudest day of his life, like a mighty giant, bore away upon his shoulders the pillars of the temple of error and delusion, escaping himself unhurt and leaving his adversaries overwhelmed in its ruins. Then it was that he erected to free-trade a beautiful and enduring monument, and "inscribed the marble with his name." Mr. President, it is with pain and regret that I now go forward to the next great era in the political life of that gentleman, when he was found on this floor supporting, advocating, and finally voting for the tariff of 1828—that "bill of abominations." By that act, sir, the Senator from Massachusetts has destroyed the labors of his whole life, and given a wound to the cause of free-trade never to be healed. Sir, when I recollect the position which the gentleman once occupied, and that which he now holds in public estimation, in relation to this subject, it is not at all surprising that the tariff should be hateful to his ears. Sir, if I had erected to my own fame so proud a monument as that which the gentleman built up in 1824, and I could have been tempted to destroy it with my own hands, I should hate the voice that should ring "the accursed tariff" in my ears. I doubt not the gentleman feels very much, in relation to the tariff, as a certain knight did to "instinct," and with him would be disposed to exclaim,

> "Ah, no more of that, Hal, an' thou lovest me!"

But, Mr. President, to be serious, what are we of the South to think of what we have heard this day? The Senator from Massachusetts tells us that the tariff is

not an Eastern measure, and treats it as if the East had no interest in it. The Senator from Missouri insists it is not a Western measure, and that it has done no good to the West. The South comes in, and, in the most earnest manner, represents to you that this measure, which we are told "is of no value to the East or the West," is "utterly destructive of our interests." We represent to you that it has spread ruin and devastation through the land, and prostrated our hopes in the dust. We solemnly declare that we believe the system to be wholly unconstitutional, and a violation of the compact between the States and the Union; and our brethren turn a deaf ear to our complaints, and refuse to relieve us from a system "which not enriches them, but makes us poor indeed." Good God! Mr. President, has it come to this? Do gentlemen hold the feelings and wishes of their brethren at so cheap a rate that they refuse to gratify them at so small a price? Do gentlemen value so lightly the peace and harmony of the country that they will not yield a measure of this description to the affectionate entreaties and earnest remonstrances of their friends? Do gentlemen estimate the value of the Union at so low a price that they will not even make one effort to bind the States together with the cords of affection? And has it come to this? Is this the spirit in which this government is to be administered? If so, let me tell the gentlemen, the seeds of dissolution are already sown, and our children will reap the bitter fruit.

The honorable gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Webster), while he exonerates me personally from the charge, intimates that there is a party in the country who are looking to disunion. Sir, if the gentleman had stopped there the accusation would have "passed by me as the idle wind, which I regard not." But when he goes on to give to his accusation a local habitation and a name by quoting the expression of South Carolina (Dr. Cooper), "that it was time for the South to calculate the value of the Union," and in the language of the bitterest sarcasm adds, "Surely, then, the Union cannot last longer than July, 1831," it is impossible to mistake either the allusion or the object of the gentleman. Now, Mr. President, I call upon every one who hears me to bear witness that this controversy is not of my seeking. The Senate will do me the justice to remember that at the time this unprovoked and uncalled-for attack was made upon the South not one word had been uttered by me in disparagement of New England; nor had I made the most distant allusion either to the Senator from Massachusetts or the State he represents. But, sir, that gentleman has thought proper, for purposes best known to himself, to strike the South, through me, the most unworthy of her servants. He has crossed the border, he has invaded the State of South Carolina, is making war upon her citizens, and endeavoring to overthrow her principles and her institutions. Sir, when the gentleman provokes me to such a conflict, I meet him at the threshold; I will struggle, while I have life, for our altars and our firesides; and, if God gives me strength, I will drive back the invader discomfited. Nor shall I stop there. If the gentleman provokes the war, he shall have war. Sir, I will not stop at the border; I will carry the war into the enemy's territory, and not consent to lay down my arms until I shall have obtained "indemnity for the past and security for the future." It is with unfeigned reluctance, Mr. President, that I enter upon the performance of this part of my duty; I shrink almost instinctively from a course, however necessary, which may have a tendency to excite sectional feelings and sectional jealousies. But, sir, the task has been forced upon me; and I proceed right onward to the performance of my duty. Be the consequences what they may, the responsibility is with those who have imposed upon me this necessity. The Senator from Massachusetts has thought proper to cast the first stone; and if he shall find, according to a homely adage, that "he lives in a glass house," on his head be the consequences. The gentleman has made a great flourish about his fidelity to Massachusetts. I shall make no professions of zeal for the interests and honor of South Carolina; of that my constituents shall judge. If there be one State in the Union, Mr. President (and I say it not in a boastful spirit), that may challenge comparison with any other for a uniform, zealous,

ardent, and uncalculating devotion to the Union, that State is South Carolina. Sir, from the very commencement of the Revolution up to this hour, there is no sacrifice, however great, she has not cheerfully made, no service she has ever hesitated to perform. She has adhered to you in your prosperity; but in your adversity she has clung to you with more than filial affection. No matter what was the condition of her domestic affairs, though deprived of her resources, divided by parties, or surrounded with difficulties, the call of the country has been to her as the voice of God. Domestic discord ceased at the sound; every man became at once reconciled to his brethren, and the sons of Carolina were all seen crowding together to the temple, bringing their gift to the altar of their common country.

What, sir, was the conduct of the South during the Revolution? Sir, I honor New England for her conduct in that glorious struggle. But, great as is the praise which belongs to her, I think at least equal honor is due to the South. They espoused the quarrel of their brethren with a generous zeal, which did not suffer them to calculate their interest in the dispute. Favorites of the mother country, possessed of neither ships nor seamen to create a commercial rivalship, they might have found in their situation a guarantee that their trade would be forever fostered and protected by Great Britain. But, trampling on all considerations either of interest or of safety, they rushed into the conflict, and, fighting for principle, periled all in the sacred cause of freedom. Never was there exhibited in the history of the world higher examples of noble daring, dreadful suffering, and heroic endurance than by the Whigs of Carolina during the Revolution. The whole State, from the mountains to the sea, was overrun by an overwhelming force of the enemy. The fruits of industry perished on the spot where they were produced, or were consumed by the foe. The "plains of Carolina" drank up the most precious blood of her citizens. Black and smoking ruins marked the places where had been the habitations of her children. Driven from their homes into the gloomy and almost impenetrable swamps, even there the spirit of liberty survived, and South Carolina (sustained by the example of her Sumters and her Marions) proved by her conduct that, though her soil might be overrun, the spirit of her people was invincible.

But, sir, our country was soon called upon to engage in another revolutionary struggle, and that too was a struggle for principle. I mean the political revolution which dates back to '98, and which, if it had not been successfully achieved, would have left us none of the fruits of the Revolution of '76. The revolution of '98 restored the Constitution, rescued the liberty of the citizen from the grasp of those who were aiming at its life, and, in the emphatic language of Mr. Jefferson, "saved the Constitution at its last gasp." And by whom was it achieved? By the South, sir, aided only by the Democracy of the North and West.

I come now to the War of 1812, a war which I remember was called in derision (while its event was doubtful) the Southern war, and sometimes the Carolina war, but which is now universally acknowledged to have done more for the honor and prosperity of the country than all other events in our history put together. What, sir, were the objects of that war? "Free-trade and sailors' rights!" It was for the protection of Northern shipping and New England seamen that the country flew to arms. What interest had the South in that contest? If they had sat down coolly to calculate the value of their interests involved in it, they would have found that they had everything to lose and nothing to gain. But, sir, with that generous devotion to country so characteristic of the South, they only asked if the rights of any portion of their fellow-citizens had been invaded; and when told that Northern ships and New England seamen had been arrested on the common highway of nations, they felt that the honor of their country was assailed; and, acting on that exalted sentiment "which feels a stain like a wound," they resolved to seek, in open war, for a redress of those injuries which it did not become freemen to endure. Sir, the whole South, animated as by a common impulse, cordially united in declaring and promoting that war. South Carolina sent to your councils, as the advocates and supporters of that war,

the noblest of her sons. How they fulfilled that trust, let a grateful country tell. Not a measure was adopted, not a battle fought, not a victory won, which contributed in any degree to the success of that war, to which Southern councils and Southern valor did not largely contribute. Sir, since South Carolina is assailed, I must be suffered to speak it to her praise that, at the very moment when in one quarter we heard it solemnly proclaimed "that it did not become a religious and moral people to rejoice at the victories of our army or our navy," her legislature unanimously

"*Resolved*, that we will cordially support the government in the vigorous prosecution of the war until a peace can be obtained on honorable terms, and we will cheerfully submit to every privation that may be required of us by our government for the accomplishment of this object."

South Carolina redeemed that pledge. She threw open her treasury to the government. She put at the absolute disposal of the officers of the United States all that she possessed—her men, her money, and her arms. She appropriated half a million of dollars, on her own account, in defence of her maritime frontier; ordered a brigade of State troops to be raised: and, when left to protect herself by her own means, never suffered the enemy to touch her soil without being instantly driven off or captured.

Such, sir, was the conduct of the South —such the conduct of my own State—in that dark hour "which tried men's souls."

When I look back and contemplate the spectacle exhibited at that time in another quarter of the Union; when I think of the conduct of certain portions of New England, and remember the part which was acted on that memorable occasion by the political associates of the gentleman from Massachusetts — nay, when I follow that gentleman into the councils of the nation, and listen to his voice during the darkest period of the war—I am indeed astonished that he should venture to touch upon the topics which he has introduced into this debate. South Carolina reproached by Massachusetts! And from whom does the accusation come? Not from the Democracy of New England; for they have been, in times past, as they are now, the friends and allies of the South. No, sir; the accusation comes from that party whose acts during the most trying and eventful period of our national history were of such a character that their own legislature, but a few years ago, actually blotted them out from their records as a stain upon the honor of the country. But how can they ever be blotted out from the recollection of any one who had a heart to feel, a mind to comprehend, and a memory to retain the events of that day? Sir, I shall not attempt to write the history of the party in New England to which I have alluded—the war party in peace, and the peace party in war. That task I shall leave to some future biographer of Nathan Dane; and I doubt not it will be found quite easy to prove that the peace party of Massachusetts were the only defenders of their country during the war, and actually achieved all our victories by land and sea. In the mean time, sir, and until that history shall be written, I propose, with the feeble and glimmering lights which I possess, to review the condition of this party in connection with the war and the events which immediately preceded it.

It will be recollected, sir, that our great causes of quarrel with Great Britain were her depredations on Northern commerce, and the impressment of New England seamen. From every quarter we were called upon for protection. Importunate as the West is now represented to be on another subject, the importunity of the East on that occasion was far greater. I hold in my hands the evidence of the fact. Here are petitions, memorials, and remonstrances from all parts of New England, setting forth the injustice, the oppressions, the depredations, the insults, the outrages committed by Great Britain against the unoffending commerce and seamen of New England, and calling upon Congress for redress. Sir, I cannot stop to read these memorials. In that from Boston, after stating the alarming and extensive condemnation of our vessels by Great Britain, which threatened "to sweep our commerce from the face of the ocean," and "to involve our merchants in bankruptcy," they call upon the government "to assert our right, and

to adopt such measures as will support the dignity and honor of the United States."

From Salem we heard a language still mere decisive; they call explicitly for "an appeal to arms," and pledge their lives and property in support of any measures which Congress might adopt. From Newburyport an appeal was made "to the firmness and justice of the government to obtain compensation and protection." It was here, I think, that, when the war was declared, it was resolved "to resist our own government even unto blood." *(Olive Branch,* page 101.)

In other quarters the common language of that day was that our commerce and our seamen were entitled to protection, and that it was the duty of the government to afford it at every hazard. The conduct of Great Britain, we were then told, was "an outrage upon our national independence." These clamors, which commenced as early as January, 1806, were continued up to 1812. In a message from the governor of one of the New England States, as late as Oct. 10, 1811, this language is held: "A manly and decisive course has become indispensable; a course to satisfy foreign nations that, while we desire peace, we have the means and the spirit to repel aggression. We are false to ourselves when our commerce or our territory is invaded with impunity."

About this time, however, a remarkable change was observable in the tone and temper of those who had been endeavoring to force the country into a war. The language of complaint was changed into that of insult, and calls for protection converted into reproaches. "Smoke, smoke!" says one writer; "my life on it, our executive have no more idea of declaring war than my grandmother." "The committee of ways and means," says another, "have come out with their Pandora's box of taxes, and yet nobody dreams of war." "Congress do not mean to declare war; they dare not." But why multiply examples? An honorable member of the other House, from the city of Boston (Mr. Quincy), in a speech delivered on April 3, 1812, says, "neither promises, nor threats, nor asseverations, nor oaths will make me believe that you will go to war. The navigation States are sacrificed, and the spirit and character of the country prostrated by fear and avarice." "You cannot," said the same gentleman on another occasion, "be kicked into a war."

Well, sir, the war at length came, and what did we behold? The very men who had been for six years clamorous for war, and for whose protection it was waged, became at once equally clamorous against it. They had received a miraculous visitation; a new light suddenly beamed upon their minds, the scales fell from their eyes, and it was discovered that the war was declared from "subserviency to France," and that Congress and the executive "had sold themselves to Napoleon"; that Great Britain had in fact "done us no essential injury"; that she was "the bulwark of our religion"; that where "she took one of our ships, she protected twenty"; and that, if Great Britain had impressed a few of our seamen, it was because "she could not distinguish them from her own." And so far did this spirit extend that a committee of the Massachusetts legislature actually fell to calculation, and discovered, to their infinite satisfaction, but to the astonishment of all the world beside, that only eleven Massachusetts sailors had ever been impressed. Never shall I forget the appeals that had been made to the sympathies of the South in behalf of the "thousands of impressed Americans" who had been torn from their families and friends, and "immured in the floating dungeons of Britain." The most touching pictures were drawn of the hard condition of the American sailor, "treated like a slave," forced to fight the battles of his enemy, "lashed to the mast to be shot at like a dog." But, sir, the very moment we had taken up arms in their defence, it was discovered that all these were mere "fictions of the brain"; and that the whole number in the State of Massachusetts was but eleven, and that even these had been "taken by mistake." Wonderful discovery. The Secretary of State had collected authentic lists of no less than 6,000 impressed Americans. Lord Castlereagh himself acknowledged 1,600. Calculations on the basis of the number found on board of the *Guerrière,*

the *Macedonian*, the *Java*, and other British ships (captured by the skill and gallantry of those heroes whose achievements are the treasured monuments of their country's glory), fixed the number at 7,000; and yet it seems Massachusetts had lost but eleven! Eleven Massachusetts sailors taken by mistake! A cause of war indeed! Their ships, too, the capture of which had threatened "universal bankruptcy"; it was discovered that Great Britain was their friend and protector; "where she had taken one, she had protected twenty!" Then was the discovery made that subserviency to France, hostility to commerce, "a determination on the part of the South and the West to break down the Eastern States," and especially (as reported by a committee of the Massachusetts legislature) "to force the sons of commerce to populate the wilderness," were the true causes of the war. (*Olive Branch*, pages 134, 291.)

But let us look a little further into the conduct of the peace party of New England at that important crisis. Whatever difference of opinion might have existed as to the causes of the war, the country had a right to expect that, when once involved in the contest, all America would have cordially united in its support. Sir, the war effected in its progress a union of all parties at the South. But not so in New England; there great efforts were made to stir up the minds of the people to oppose it. Nothing was left undone to embarrass the financial operations of the government, to prevent the enlistment of troops, to keep back the men and money of New England from the service of the Union, to force the President from his seat. Yes, sir, "the Island of Elba or a halter!" were the alternatives they presented to the excellent and venerable James Madison. Sir, the war was further opposed by openly carrying on illicit trade with the enemy, by permitting that enemy to establish herself on the very soil of Massachusetts, and by opening a free trade between Great Britain and America, with a separate custom-house;—yes, sir, those who cannot endure the thought that we should insist on a free trade in time of profound peace could, without scruple, claim and exercise the right of carrying on a free trade with the enemy in a time of war;—and finally by getting up the renowned "Hartford Convention," and preparing the way for an open resistance to the government and a separation of the States. Sir, if I am asked for the proof of those things, I fearlessly appeal to contemporary history, to the public documents of the country, to the recorded opinion and acts of public assemblies, to the declaration and acknowledgments, since made, of the executive and legislature of Massachusetts herself.

Sir, the time has not been allowed me to trace this subject through, even if I had been disposed to do so. But I cannot refrain from referring to one or two documents which have fallen in my way since this debate began. I read, sir, from the *Olive Branch* of Matthew Carey, in which are collected "the actings and doings" of the peace party of New England, during the continuance of the embargo and the war. I know the Senator from Massachusetts will respect the high authority of his political friend and fellow-laborer in the great cause of "domestic industry."

In page 301 *et seq.* 309 of this work is a detailed account of the measures adopted in Massachusetts during the war, for the express purpose of embarrassing the financial operations of the government, by preventing loans, and thereby driving our rulers from their seats, and forcing the country into a dishonorable peace. It appears that the Boston banks commenced an operation by which a run was to be made upon all the banks at the South, at the same time stopping their own discounts, the effect of which was to produce a sudden and most alarming diminution of the circulating medium, and universal distress over the whole country, a distress which they failed not to attribute to the "unholy war."

To such an extent was this system carried that it appears, from a statement of the condition of the Boston banks made up in January, 1814, that with nearly $5,000,000 of specie in their vaults they had but $2,000,000 of bills in circulation. It is added by Carey that at this very time an extensive trade was carried on in British government bills, for which specie was sent to Canada for the payment of the British troops, then laying waste our northern

frontier; and this, too, at the very moment when New England ships, sailing under British licenses (a trade declared to be lawful by the courts both of Great Britain and Massachusetts), were supplying with provisions those very armies destined for the invasion of our own shores. Sir, the author of the *Olive Branch*, with a holy indignation, denounces these acts as "treasonable"; giving aid and comfort to the enemy." I shall not follow his example. But I will ask, With what justice or propriety can the South be accused of disloyalty from that quarter? If we had any evidence that the Senator from Massachusetts had admonished his brethren then, he might with a better grace assume the office of admonishing us now.

When I look at the measures adopted in Boston at that day to deprive the government of the necessary means of carrying on the war, and think of the success and the consequences of these measures, I feel my pride as an American humbled in the dust. Hear, sir, the language of that day. I read from pages 301 and 302 of the *Olive Branch*. "Let no man who wishes to continue the war, by active means, by vote, by lending money, dare to prostrate himself at the altar on the fast-day." "Will Federalists subscribe to the loan? Will they lend money to our national rulers? It is impossible, first because of principle, and secondly because of principal and interest." "Do not prevent the abusers of their trust from becoming bankrupt. Do not prevent them from becoming odious to the public, and being replaced by better men." "Any Federalist who lends money to government must go and shake hands with James Madison, and claim fellowship with Felix Grundy." (I beg pardon of my honorable friend from Tennessee, but he is in good company. I thought it was "James Madison, Felix Grundy, and the Devil.") "Let him no more call himself a Federalist, and a friend to his country—he will be called by others infamous," etc.

Sir, the spirit of the people sunk under these appeals. Such was the effect produced by them on the public mind that the very agents of the government (as appears from their public advertisements now before me) could not obtain loans without a pledge that "the names of the subscribers should not be known." Here are the advertisements: "The names of all subscribers" (say Gilbert and Dean, the brokers employed by government) "shall be known only to the undersigned." As if those who came forward to aid their country, in the hour of her utmost need, were engaged in some dark and foul conspiracy, they were assured "that their names should not be known." Can anything show more conclusively the unhappy state of public feeling which prevailed at that day than this single fact? Of the same character with these measures was the conduct of Massachusetts in withholding her militia from the service of the United States, and devising measures for withdrawing her quota of the taxes, thereby attempting, not merely to cripple the resources of the country, but actually depriving the government (so far as depended upon her) of all the means of carrying on the war, of the bone and muscle and sinews of war, "of man and steel, the soldier and his sword." But it seems Massachusetts was to reserve her resources for herself—she was to defend and protect her own shores. And how was that duty performed? In some places on the coast neutrality was declared, and the enemy was suffered to invade the soil of Massachusetts, and allowed to occupy her territory until the peace, without one effort to rescue it from his grasp. Nay, more—while our own government and our own rulers were considered as enemies, the troops of the enemy were treated like friends—the most intimate commercial relations were established with them, and maintained up to the peace. At this dark period of our national affairs where was the Senator from Massachusetts? How were his political associates employed? "Calculating the value of the Union?" Yes, sir, that was the propitious moment, when our country stood alone, the last hope of the world, struggling for existence against the colossal power of Great Britain, "concentrated in one mighty effort to crush us at a blow" —that was the chosen hour to revive the grand scheme of building up "a great Northern confederacy"—a scheme which, it is stated in the work before me, had its origin as far back as the year 1796, and

which appears never to have been entirely abandoned.

In the language of the writers of that day (1796), "rather than have a Constitution such as the Anti-Federalists were contending for" (such as we now are contending for), "the Union ought to be dissolved"; and to prepare the way for that measure the same methods were resorted to then that have always been relied on for that purpose, exciting prejudice against the South. Yes, sir, our Northern brethren were then told "that if the negroes were good for food their Southern masters would claim the right to destroy them at pleasure." (*Olive Branch*, page 267.) Sir, in 1814 all these topics were revived. Again we hear of "a Northern confederacy"; "the slave States by themselves"; "the mountains are the natural boundary"; we want neither "the counsels nor the power of the West," etc. The papers teemed with accusations against the South and the West, and the calls for a dissolution of all connection with them were loud and strong. I cannot consent to go through the disgusting details. But, to show the height to which the spirit of disaffection was carried, I will take you to the temple of the living God, and show you that sacred place (which should be devoted to the extension of "peace on earth and good will towards men," where one day's truce ought surely to be allowed to the dissensions and animosities of mankind) converted into a fierce arena of political strife, where, from the lips of the priest standing between the horns of the altar, there went forth the most terrible denunciations against all who should be true to their country in the hour of her utmost need.

"If you do not wish," said a reverend clergyman in a sermon preached in Boston on July 23, 1812, "to become the slaves of those who own slaves, and who are themselves the slaves of French slaves, you must either, in the language of the day, cut the connection, or so far alter the national compact as to insure to yourselves a due share in the government." (*Olive Branch*, page 319.) "The Union," says the same writer (page 320), "has been long since virtually dissolved, and it is full time that this part of the disunited States should take care of itself."

Another reverend gentleman, pastor of a church at Medford (page 321), issues his anathema, "Let him stand accursed," against all, all who, by their "personal services," or "loans of money," "conversations," or "writing," or "influence," give countenance or support to the unrighteous war, in the following terms: "That man is an accomplice in the wickedness, he loads his conscience with the blackest crimes, he brings the guilt of blood upon his soul, and in the sight of God and his law he is a murderer."

One more quotation, sir, and I shall have done. A reverend doctor of divinity, the pastor of a church at Byfield, Mass., on April 7, 1814, thus addressed his flock (page 321): "The Israelites became weary of yielding the fruit of their labor to pamper their splendid tyrants. They left their political woes. They separated. Where is our Moses? Where the rod of his miracles? Where is our Aaron? Alas! no voice from the burning bush has directed them here." "We must trample on the mandates of despotism, or remain slaves forever" (page 322). "You must drag the chains of Virginia despotism, unless you discover some other mode of escape." "Those Western States which have been violent in this abominable war, those States which have thirsted for blood, God has given them blood to drink" (page 323). Mr. President, I can go no further. The records of the day are full of such sentiments, issued from the press, spoken in public assemblies, poured out from the sacred desk. God forbid, sir, that I should charge the people of Massachusetts with participating in these sentiments. The South and the West had there their friends, men who stood by their country, though encompassed all around by their enemies. The Senator from Massachusetts (Mr. Silsbee) was one of them; the Senator from Connecticut (Mr. Foote) was another, and there are others now on this floor. The sentiments I have read were the sentiments of a party embracing the political associates of the gentleman from Massachusetts. If they could only be found in the columns of a newspaper, in a few occasional pamphlets, issued by men of intemperate feeling, I should not consider them as affording any

evidence of the opinions even of the peace party of New England. But, sir, they were the common language of that day; they pervaded the whole land; they were issued from the legislative hall, from the pulpit, and the press. Our books are full of them; and there is no man who now hears me but knows that they were the sentiments of a party by whose members they were promulgated. Indeed, no evidence of this would seem to be required beyond the fact that such sentiments found their way even into the pulpits of New England. What must be the state of public opinion where any respectable clergyman would venture to preach and to print sermons containing the sentiments I have quoted? I doubt not the piety or moral worth of these gentlemen. I am told they were respectable and pious men. But they were men, and they "kindled in a common blaze." And now, sir, I must be suffered to remark that, at this awful and melancholy period of our national history, the gentleman from Massachusetts who now manifests so great a devotion to the Union, and so much anxiety lest it should be endangered by the South, was "with his brethren in Israel." He saw all these things passing before his eyes; he heard these sentiments uttered all around him. I do not charge that gentleman with any participation in these acts, or with approving of these sentiments.

But I will ask, why if he was animated by the same sentiments then which he now professes, if he can "augur disunion at a distance, and snuff up rebellion in every tainted breeze," why did he not at that day exert his great talents and acknowledged influence with the political associates by whom he was surrounded, and who then, as now, looked up to him for guidance and direction, in allaying this general excitement, in pointing out to his deluded friends the value of the Union, in instructing them that, instead of looking "to some prophet to lead them out of the land of Egypt," they should become reconciled to their brethren, and unite with them in the support of a just and necessary war? Sir, the gentleman must excuse me from saying that, if the record of our country afforded any evidence that he had pursued such a course, then; if we could find it recorded in the history of those times that, like the immortal Dexter, he had breasted that mighty torrent which was sweeping before it all that was great and valuable in our political institutions; if like him he had stood by his country in opposition to his party—sir, we would, like little children, listen to his precepts, and abide by his counsels.

As soon as the public mind was sufficiently prepared for the measure, the celebrated Hartford Convention was got up; not as the act of a few unorganized individuals, but by the authority of the legislature of Massachusetts, and, as has been shown by the able historian of that convention, in accordance with the views and wishes of the party of which it was the organ. Now, sir, I do not desire to call in question the motives of the gentlemen who composed that assembly. I knew many of them to be in private life accomplished and honorable men, and I doubt not there were some among them who did not perceive the dangerous tendency of their proceedings. I will even go further, and say that if the authors of the Hartford Convention believed that "gross, deliberate, and palpable violations of the Constitution" had taken place, utterly destructive of their rights and interests, I should be the last man to deny their right to resort to any constitutional measures for redress. But, sir, in any view of the case, the time when and the circumstances under which that convention assembled, as well as the measures recommended, render their conduct, in my opinion, wholly indefensible. Let us contemplate, for a moment, the spectacle then exhibited to the view of the world. I will not go over the disasters of the war, nor describe the difficulties in which the government was involved. It will be recollected that its credit was nearly gone, Washington had fallen, the whole coast was blockaded, and an immense force, collected in the West Indies, was about to make a descent which it was supposed we had no means of resisting. In this awful state of our public affairs, when the government seemed almost to be tottering on its base, when Great Britain, relieved from all her other enemies, had proclaimed her purpose of "re-

ducing us to unconditional submission," we beheld the peace party of New England (in the language of the work before us) pursuing a course calculated to do more injury to their country, "and to render England more effective service than all her armies." Those who could not find it in their hearts to rejoice at our victories sang *Te Deum* at the King's Chapel in Boston for the restoration of the Bourbons. Those who could not consent to illuminate their dwellings for the capture of the *Guerrière* could give visible tokens of their joy at the fall of Detroit. The "beacon fires" of their hills were lighted up, not for the encouragement of their friends, but as signals to the enemy; and in the gloomy hours of midnight the very lights burned blue. Such were the dark and portentous signs of the times which ushered into being the renowned Hartford Convention. That convention met, and from their proceedings it appears that their chief object was to keep back the men and money of New England from the service of the Union, and to effect radical changes in the government—changes that can never be effected without a dissolution of the Union.

Let us now, sir, look at their proceedings. I read from *A Short Account of the Hartford Convention* (written by one of its members), a very rare book, of which I was fortunate enough, a few years ago, to obtain a copy. [Here Senator Hayne read from the proceedings.]

It is unnecessary to trace the matter further, or to ask what would have been the next chapter in this history if the measures recommended had been carried into effect; and if, with the men and money of New England withheld from the government of the United States, she had been withdrawn from the war; if New Orleans had fallen into the hands of the enemy; and if, without troops and almost destitute of money, the Southern and Western States had been thrown upon their own resources for the prosecution of the war and the recovery of New Orleans. Sir, whatever may have been the issue of the contest, the Union must have been dissolved. But a wise and just Providence, which "shapes our ends, rough hew them how we will," gave us the victory, and crowned our efforts with a glorious peace. The ambassadors of Hartford were seen retracing their steps from Washington, "the bearers of the glad tidings of great joy." Courage and patriotism triumphed; the country was saved; the Union was preserved. And are we, Mr. President, who stood by our country then, who threw open our coffers, who bared our bosoms, who freely periled all in that conflict, to be reproached with want of attachment to the Union? If, sir, we are to have lessons of patriotism read to us, they must come from a different quarter. The Senator from Massachusetts, who is now so sensitive on all subjects connected with the Union, seems to have a memory forgetful of the political events that have passed away. I must therefore refresh his recollection a little further on these subjects. The history of disunion has been written by one whose authority stands too high with the American people to be questioned—I mean Thomas Jefferson. I know not how the gentleman may receive this authority. When that great and good man occupied the Presidential chair, I believe he commanded no portion of that gentleman's respect.

I hold in my hand a celebrated pamphlet on the embargo, in which language is held, in relation to Mr. Jefferson, which my respect for his memory will prevent me from reading, unless any gentleman should call for it. But the Senator from Massachusetts has since joined in singing hosannas to his name; he has assisted at his apotheosis, and has fixed him as "a brilliant star in the clear upper sky." I hope, therefore, he is now prepared to receive with deference and respect the high authority of Mr. Jefferson. In the fourth volume of his *Memoirs*, which have just issued from the press, we have the following history of disunion from the pen of that illustrious statesman: "Mr. Adams called on me pending the embargo, and while endeavors were making to obtain its repeal; he spoke of the dissatisfaction of the Eastern portion of our confederacy with the restraints of the embargo then existing, and their restlessness under it; that there was nothing which might not be attempted to rid themselves of it; that he had information of the most unquestioned authority that certain citizens of the Eastern States (I think he

named Massachusetts particularly) were in negotiation with the agents of the British government, the object of which was an agreement that the New England States should take no further part in the war (the commercial war, the 'war of restrictions,' as it was called, then going on, and that, without formally declaring their separation from the Union, they should withdraw from all aid and obedience to them," etc.

"From that moment," says Mr. Jefferson, "I saw the necessity of abandoning it (the embargo), and, instead of effecting our purpose by this peaceful measure, we must fight it out or break the Union." In another letter Mr. Jefferson adds: "I doubt whether a single fact known to the world will carry as clear conviction to it of the correctness of our knowledge of the treasonable views of the Federal party of that day as that disclosed by this, the most nefarious and daring attempt to dissever the Union, of which the Hartford Convention was a subsequent chapter; and, both of these having failed, consolidation becomes the fourth chapter of the next book of their history. But it opens with a vast accession of strength from their young recruits, who, having nothing in them of the feelings and principles of '76, now look to a single and splendid government, etc., riding and ruling over the plundered ploughman and beggared yeomanry." (Vol. iv., pp. 419, 422.)

The last chapter, says Mr. Jefferson, of that history is to be found in the conduct of those who are endeavoring to bring about consolidation; ay, sir, that very consolidation for which the gentleman from Massachusetts is contending—the exercise by the federal government of powers not delegated in relation to "internal improvements" and "the protection of manufactures." And why, sir, does Mr. Jefferson consider consolidation as leading directly to disunion? Because he knew that the exercise by the federal government of the powers contended for would make this "a government without limitation of powers," the submission to which he considered as a greater evil than disunion itself. There is one chapter in this history, however, which Mr. Jefferson has not filled up, and I must therefore supply the deficiency. It is to be found in the protests made by New England against the acquisition of Louisiana. In relation to that subject, the New England doctrine is thus laid down by one of her learned political doctors of that day, now a doctor of laws at the head of the great literary institution of the East; I mean Josiah Quincy, president of Harvard College. I quote from the speech delivered by that gentleman on the floor of Congress, on the occasion of the admission of Louisiana into the Union.

Mr. Quincy repeated and justified a remark he had made, which, to save all misapprehension, he had committed to writing, in the following words: "If this bill passes, it is my deliberate opinion that it is virtually a dissolution of the Union; that it will free the States from their moral obligation; and as it will be the right of all, so it will be the duty of some to prepare for a separation, amicably if they can, violently if they must."

Mr. President, I wish it to be distinctly understood that all the remarks I have made on this subject are intended to be exclusively applied to a party which I have described as the "peace party of New England," embracing the political associates of the Senator from Massachusetts, a party which controlled the operations of that State during the embargo and the war, and who are justly chargeable with all the measures I have reprobated. Sir, nothing has been further from my thoughts than to impeach the character or conduct of the people of New England. For their steady habits and hardy virtues I trust I entertain a becoming respect. I fully subscribe to the truth of the description given before the Revolution, by one whose praise is the highest eulogy, "that the perseverance of Holland, the activity of France, and the dexterous and firm sagacity of English enterprise have been more than equalled by this recent people." Hardy, enterprising, sagacious, industrious, and moral, the people of New England of the present day are worthy of their ancestors. Still less, Mr. President, has it been my intention to say anything that could be construed into a want of respect for that party who, trampling on all narrow, sectional feeling, have been true to their principles in

the worst of times; I mean the Democracy of New England.

Sir, I will declare that, highly as I appreciate the Democracy of the South, I consider even higher praise to be due to the Democracy of New England, who have maintained their principles "through good and through evil report," who, at every period of our national history, have stood up manfully for "their country, their whole country, and nothing but their country." In the great political revolution of '98 they were found united with the Democracy of the South, marching under the banner of the Constitution, led on by the patriarch of liberty, in search of the land of political promise, which they lived not only to behold, but to possess and to enjoy. Again, sir, in the darkest and most gloomy period of the war, when our country stood single-handed against "the conqueror of the conquerors of the world," when all about and around them was dark and dreary, disastrous and discouraging, they stood a Spartan band in that narrow pass, where the honor of their country was to be defended, or to find its grave. And in the last great struggle, involving, as we believe, the very existence of the principle of popular sovereignty, where were the Democracy of New England? Where they have always been found, sir, struggling side by side with their brethren of the South and the West for popular rights, and assisting in that glorious triumph by which the man of the people was elevated to the highest office in their gift.

Who, then, Mr. President, are the true friends of the Union? Those who would confine the federal government strictly within the limits prescribed by the Constitution; who would preserve to the States and the people all powers not expressly delegated; who would make this a federal and not a national Union; and who, administering the government in a spirit of equal justice, would make it a blessing and not a curse. And who are its enemies? Those who are in favor of consolidation; who are constantly stealing power from the States, and adding strength to the federal government; who, assuming an unwarrantable jurisdiction over the States and the people, undertake to regulate the whole industry and capital of the country. But, sir, of all descriptions of men, I consider those as the worst enemies of the Union who sacrifice the equal rights which belong to every member of the confederacy to combinations of interested majorities for personal or political objects. But the gentleman apprehends no evil from the dependence of the States on the federal government; he can see no danger of money or of patronage. Sir, I know that it is supposed to be a wise saying that "patronage is a source of weakness," and in support of that maxim it has been said that "every ten appointments make a hundred enemies." But I am rather inclined to think, with the eloquent and sagacious orator now reposing on his laurels on the banks of the Roanoke, that "the power of conferring favors creates a crowd of dependents." He gave a forcible illustration of the truth of the remark when he told us of the effect of holding up the savory morsel to the eager eyes of the hungry hounds gathered around his door. It mattered not whether the gift was bestowed on Towser or Sweetlips, Tray, Blanche, or Sweetheart; while held in suspense they were all governed by a nod, and, when the morsel was bestowed, the expectation of the favors of to-morrow kept up the subjection of to-day.

The Senator from Massachusetts, in denouncing what he is pleased to call the Carolina doctrine, has attempted to throw ridicule upon the idea that a State has any constitutional remedy, by the exercise of its sovereign authority, against "a gross, palpable, and deliberate violation of the Constitution." He called it "an idle" or "a ridiculous notion," or something to that effect, and added that it would make the Union a "mere rope of sand." Now, sir, as the gentleman has not condescended to enter into any examination of the question, and has been satisfied with throwing the weight of his authority into the scale, I do not deem it necessary to do more than to throw into the opposite scale the authority on which South Carolina relies; and there, for the present, I am perfectly willing to leave the controversy. The South Carolina doctrine—that is to say, the doctrine contained in an exposition re-

ported by a committee of the legislature in December, 1828, and published by their authority—is the good old republican doctrine of '98; the doctrine of the celebrated "Virginia Resolutions" of that year, and of "Madison's Report" of '99. It will be recollected that the legislature of Virginia, in December, '98, took into consideration the alien and sedition laws, then considered by all republicans as a gross violation of the Constitution of the United States, and on that day passed, among others, the following resolutions:

"The General Assembly . . . doth explicitly and peremptorily declare that it views the powers of the federal government, as resulting from the compact to which the States were parties, as limited by the plain sense and intention of the instrument constituting that compact; as no further valid than they are authorized by the grants enumerated in that compact; and that, in case of a deliberate, palpable, and dangerous exercise of other powers not granted by the said compact, the States who are parties thereto have the right, and are in duty bound, to interpose for arresting the progress of the evil and for maintaining, within their respective limits, the authorities, rights, and liberties appertaining to them."

In addition to the above resolution, the General Assembly of Virginia "appealed to the other States, in the confidence that they would concur with that commonwealth that the acts aforesaid (the alien and sedition laws) are unconstitutional, and that the necessary and proper measures would be taken by each for co-operating with Virginia in maintaining unimpaired the authorities, rights, and liberties reserved to the States respectively, or to the people."

The legislatures of several of the New England States, having, contrary to the expectation of the legislature of Virginia, expressed their dissent from these doctrines, the subject came up again for consideration during the session of 1799–1800, when it was referred to a select committee, by whom was made that celebrated report which is familiarly known as "Madison's Report," and which deserves to last as long as the Constitution itself. In that report, which was subsequently adopted by the legislature, the whole subject was deliberately re-examined, and the objections urged against the Virginia doctrines carefully considered. The result was that the legislature of Virginia reaffirmed all the principles laid down in the resolutions of 1798, and issued to the world that admirable report which has stamped the character of Mr. Madison as the preserver of that Constitution which he had contributed so largely to create and establish. I will here quote from Mr. Madison's report one or two passages which bear more immediately on the point in controversy. "The resolution, having taken this view of the federal compact, proceeds to infer 'that in case of a deliberate, palpable, and dangerous exercise of other powers, not granted by the said compact, the States who are parties thereto have the right, and are in duty bound, to interpose for arresting the progress of the evil, and for maintaining, within their respective limits, the authorities, rights, and liberties appertaining to them.'

"It appears to your committee to be a plain principle, founded in common-sense, illustrated by common practice, and essential to the nature of compacts, that, where resort can be had to no tribunal superior to the authority of the parties, the parties themselves must be the rightful judges in the last resort whether the bargain made has been pursued or violated. The Constitution of the United States was formed by the sanction of the States, given by each in its sovereign capacity. It adds to the stability and dignity, as well as to the authority, of the Constitution, that it rests upon this legitimate and solid foundation. The States, then, being the parties to the constitutional compact, and in their sovereign capacity, it follows of necessity that there can be no tribunal above their authority to decide, in the last resort, whether the compact made by them be violated, and consequently that, as the parties to it, they must themselves decide in the last resort such questions as may be of sufficient magnitude to require their interposition.

"The resolution has guarded against any misapprehension of its object by expressly requiring for such an interposition 'the case of a deliberate, palpable, and dangerous breach of the Constitution by

the exercise of powers not granted by it.' It must be a case, not of a light and transient nature, but of a nature dangerous to the great purposes for which the Constitution was established.

"But the resolution has done more than guard against misconstruction, by expressly referring to cases of a deliberate, palpable, and dangerous nature. It specifies the object of the interposition which it contemplates to be solely that of maintaining the authorities, rights, and liberties appertaining to the States as parties to the Constitution.

"From this view of the resolution it would seem inconceivable that it can incur any just disapprobation from those who, laying aside all momentary impressions, and recollecting the genuine source and object of the federal Constitution, shall candidly and accurately interpret the meaning of the General Assembly. If the deliberate exercise of dangerous powers, palpably withheld by the Constitution, could not justify the parties to it in interposing even so far as to arrest the progress of the evil, and thereby to preserve the Constitution itself, as well as to provide for the safety of the parties to it, there would be an end to all relief from usurped power, and a direct subversion of the rights specified or recognized under all the State constitutions, as well as a plain denial of the fundamental principles on which our independence itself was declared."

But, sir, our authorities do not stop here. The State of Kentucky responded to Virginia, and on Nov. 10, 1798, adopted those celebrated resolutions well known to have been penned by the author of the Declaration of American Independence. In those resolutions the legislature of Kentucky declare "That the government created by this compact was not made the exclusive or final *judge* of the extent of the powers delegated to itself, since that would have made its discretion, and not the Constitution, the measure of its powers; but that, as in all other cases of compact among parties having no common judge, each party has an equal right to judge for itself, as well of infractions as of the mode and measure of redress."

At the ensuing session of the legislature the subject was re-examined, and on Nov. 14, 1799, the resolutions of the preceding year were deliberately re-affirmed, and it was, among other things, solemnly declared:

"That if those who administer the general government be permitted to transgress the limits fixed by that compact, by a total disregard to the special delegations of power therein contained, an annihilation of the State governments, and the erection upon their ruins of the general consolidated government, will be the inevitable consequence. That the principle and construction contended for by sundry of the State legislatures, that the general government is the exclusive judge of the extent of the powers delegated to it, stop not short of despotism, since the discretion of those who administer the government, and not the Constitution, would be the measure of their powers. That the several States who formed that instrument, being sovereign and independent, have the unquestionable right to judge of the infraction, and that a nullification of those sovereignties of all unauthorized acts done under color of that instrument is the rightful remedy."

Time and experience confirmed Mr. Jefferson's opinion on this all-important point. In the year 1821 he expressed himself in this emphatic manner: "It is a fatal heresy to suppose that either our State governments are superior to the federal, or the federal to the State; neither is authorized literally to decide which belongs to itself or its copartner in government; in differences of opinion between the different sets of public servants, the appeal is to neither, but to their employers peaceably assembled by their representatives in convention." The opinion of Mr. Jefferson on this subject has been so repeatedly and so solemnly expressed that it may be said to have been among the most fixed and settled convictions of his mind.

In the protest prepared by him for the legislature of Virginia, in December, 1825, in respect to the powers exercised by the federal government in relation to the tariff and internal improvements, which he declares to be "usurpations of the powers retained by the States, mere interpolations into the compact, and di-

rect infractions of it," he solemnly reasserts all the principles of the Virginia Resolutions of '98; protests against "these acts of the federal branch of the government as null and void; and declares that, although Virginia would consider a dissolution of the Union as among the greatest calamities that could befall them, yet it is not the greatest. There is one yet greater—submission to a government of unlimited powers. It is only when the hope of this shall become absolutely desperate that further forbearance could not be indulged."

In his letter to Mr. Giles, written about the same time, he says:

"I see as you do, and with the deepest affliction, the rapid strides with which the federal branch of our government is advancing towards the usurpation of all the rights reserved to the States, and the consolidation in itself of all powers, foreign and domestic, and that, too, by constructions which leave no limits to their powers, etc. Under the power to regulate commerce, they assume indefinitely that also over agriculture and manufactures, etc. Under the authority to establish post-roads they claim that of cutting down mountains for the construction of roads, and digging canals, etc. And what is our resource for the preservation of the Constitution? Reason and argument? You might as well reason and argue with the marble columns encircling them, etc. Are we, then, to stand to our arms with the hot-headed Georgian? No (and I say no, and South Carolina has said no): that must be the last resource. We must have patience and long endurance with our brethren, etc., and separate from our companions only when the sole alternatives left are a dissolution of our union with them, or submission to a government without limitation of powers. Between these two evils, when we must make a choice, there can be no hesitation."

Such, sir, are the high and imposing authorities in support of "the Carolina doctrine," which is, in fact, the doctrine of the Virginia Resolutions of 1798.

Sir, at that day the whole country was divided on this very question. It formed the line of demarcation between the Federal and Republican parties; and the great political revolution which then took place turned upon the very question involved in these resolutions. That question was decided by the people, and by that decision the Constitution was, in the emphatic language of Mr. Jefferson, "saved at its last gasp." I should suppose, sir, it would require more self-respect than any gentleman here would be willing to assume, to treat lightly doctrines derived from such high sources. Resting on authority like this, I will ask, gentlemen, whether South Carolina has not manifested a high regard for the Union when, under a tyranny ten times more grievous than the alien and sedition laws, she has hitherto gone no further than to petition, remonstrate, and to solemnly protest against a series of measures which she believes to be wholly unconstitutional and utterly destructive of her interests. Sir, South Carolina has not gone one step further than Mr. Jefferson himself was disposed to go in relation to the present subject of our present complaints; not a step further than the statesmen from New England were disposed to go under similar circumstances; no further than the Senator from Massachusetts himself once considered as within "the limits of a constitutional opposition." The doctrine that it is the right of the State to judge of the violations of the Constitution on the part of the federal government, and to protect her citizens from the operations of unconstitutional laws, was held by the enlightened citizens of Boston who assembled in Faneuil Hall on Jan. 25, 1809. They state in that celebrated memorial that "they looked only to the State legislatures, who were competent to devise relief against the unconstitutional acts of the general government. That your power (say they) is adequate to that object is evident from the organization of the confederacy."

A distinguished Senator from one of the New England States (Mr. Hillhouse), in a speech delivered here on a bill for enforcing the embargo, declared: "I feel myself bound in conscience to declare (lest the blood of those who shall fall in the execution of this measure shall be on my head) that I consider this to be an act which directs a mortal blow at the liberties of my country—an act containing unconstitutional provisions, to which the

people are not bound to submit, and to which, in my opinion, they will not submit."

And the Senator from Massachusetts himself, in a speech delivered on the same subject in the other House, said: "This opposition is constitutional and legal; it is also conscientious. It rests on settled and sober conviction that such policy is destructive to the interests of the people and dangerous to the being of government. The experience of every day confirms these sentiments. Men who act from such motives are not to be discouraged by trifling obstacles, nor awed by any dangers. They know the limit of constitutional opposition; up to that limit, at their own discretion, they will walk, and walk fearlessly." How "the being of government" was to be endangered by "constitutional opposition" to the embargo, I leave to the gentlemen to explain.

Thus it will be seen, Mr. President, that the South Carolina doctrine is the Republican doctrine of '98; that it was promulgated by the fathers of the faith; that it was maintained by Virginia and Kentucky in the worst of times; that it constituted the very pivot on which the political revolution of that day turned; that it embraces the very principles the triumphs of which, at that time, saved the Constitution at its last gasp, and which New England statesmen were not unwilling to adopt when they believed themselves to be the victims of unconstitutional legislation. Sir, as to the doctrine that the federal government is the exclusive judge of the extent as well as the limitations of its powers, it seems to me to be utterly subversive of the sovereignty and independence of the States. It makes but little difference, in my estimation, whether Congress or the Supreme Court is invested with this power. If the federal government, in all or any of its departments, is to prescribe the limits of its own authority, and the States are bound to submit to the decision, and are not to be allowed to examine and decide for themselves when the barriers of the Constitution shall be overleaped, this is practically "a government without limitation of powers." The States are at once reduced to mere petty corporations, and the people are entirely at your mercy. I have but one word more to add. In all the efforts that have been made by South Carolina to resist the unconstitutional laws which Congress has extended over them, she has kept steadily in view the preservation of the Union by the only means by which she believes it can be long preserved—a firm, manly, and steady resistance against usurpation. The measures of the federal government have, it is true, prostrated her interests, and will soon involve the whole South in irretrievable ruin. But even this evil, great as it is, is not the chief ground of our complaints. It is the principle involved in the contest, a principle which, substituting the discretion of Congress for the limitations of the Constitution, brings the States and the people to the feet of the federal government, and leaves them nothing they can call their own. Sir, if the measures of the federal government were less oppressive, we should still strive against this usurpation. The South is acting on a principle she has always held sacred—resistance to unauthorized taxation. These, sir, are the principles which induced the immortal Hampden to resist the payment of a tax of 20*s*. "Would 20*s*. have ruined his fortune? No! but the payment of half 20*s*., on the principle on which it was demanded, would have made him a slave." Sir, if, acting on these high motives—if, animated by that ardent love of liberty which has always been the most prominent trait in the Southern character—we should be hurried beyond the bounds of a cold and calculating prudence, who is there, with one noble and generous sentiment in his bosom, that would not be disposed, in the language of Burke, to exclaim, "You must pardon something to the spirit of liberty"?

For the full text of the reply to this speech, see WEBSTER, DANIEL.

Haynes, JOHN, statesman; born in Copford Hall, Essex, England; accompanied Rev. Edward Hooker to Boston in 1633, and in 1635 was chosen governor of Massachusetts. He was one of the best educated of the early settlers in New England, and possessed the qualities of an able statesman. He went to the valley of the Connecticut with Mr. Hooker in 1636; became one of the most prominent

founders of the Connecticut colony; was chosen its first governor, in 1639; and served alternately with Edward Hopkins until 1654. Mr. Haynes was one of the five who drew up the written constitution of Connecticut, the first ever framed in America (see CONNECTICUT). He was a man of large estate, spotless purity of character, a friend of civil and religious liberty, and was always performing acts of benevolence. He probably did more for the true interests of Connecticut than any other of the earlier settlers. He died in Hartford, March 1, 1654.

Hays, ALEXANDER, military officer; born in Pittsburg, Pa., July 8, 1819; graduated at West Point in 1844; served in the war with Mexico; left the army in 1848; did good service as captain, colonel, and brigadier-general of volunteers in the Army of the Potomac from the beginning of the Civil War, distinguishing himself in the seven days' battle before Richmond in 1862, and at Chancellorsville and Gettysburg. He was killed in battle in "The Wilderness," Va., May 5, 1864, while leading a brigade in Hancock's corps.

Haywood, JOHN, jurist; born in Halifax county, N. C., in 1753; removed to Tennessee in 1810; and became widely known as an advocate. His publications include *A Manual of the Laws of North Carolina; Haywood's Justice and North Carolina Law Reports; Tennessee Reports; Statute Laws of Tennessee* (with R. L. Cobbs); *Natural and Aboriginal History of Tennessee;* and *The Civil and Political History of Tennessee from its Earliest Settlement to 1796.* He died in Nashville, Tenn., in December, 1826.

Hazard, EBENEZER, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 15, 1744; son of Samuel Hazard; was the first postmaster-general under the Confederation (1782–89), and left the place when the new government was organized under the national Constitution. He graduated at Princeton in 1762. Mr. Hazard published *Historical Collections,* in 2 volumes, in 1792–94; also, *Remarks on a Report concerning Western Indians.* He died in Philadelphia, June 13, 1817.

Hazard, ROWLAND GIBSON, author; born in South Kingston, R. I., Oct. 9, 1801; brother of THOMAS ROBINSON HAZARD; became prominent in the politics of his State. His publications include *Lecture on the Causes of the Decline of Political and National Morality; Essays on the Resources of the United States; Essays on Finance and Hours of Labor,* etc. He died in Peacedale, R. I., June 24, 1888.

Hazard, SAMUEL, archæologist; born in Philadelphia, May 26, 1784; son of Ebenezer Hazard. In early life he engaged in commerce, and made several voyages to the East Indies before he began a literary career. He was the author of *Register of Pennsylvania* (1828–36), in 16 volumes; *United States Commercial and Statistical Register* (1839–42), in 6 volumes; *Annals of Pennsylvania,* from the discovery of the Delaware in 1609 to the year 1682, in 1 volume; and *Pennsylvania Archives* (1682–1790), in 12 volumes of about 800 pages each. These works are invaluable to historians. He died in Philadelphia, May 22, 1870.

Hazard, THOMAS ROBINSON, author; born in South Kensington, R. I., in 1784; engaged in the woollen business, in which he made a fortune. He took much interest in the insane asylums and poor-houses of Rhode Island, and caused many reforms in those institutions. His works include *Capital Punishment; Report on the Poor and Insane; Handbook of the National American Party; Appeal to the People of Rhode Island,* etc. He died in New York in March, 1876.

Hazelius, ERNEST LEWIS, clergyman; born in Silesia, Prussia, Sept. 6, 1777; was reared in the Moravian faith, and later became a minister in that Church. In 1800 he accepted a professorship at the Moravian Seminary in Nazareth, Pa. In 1809, however, he joined the Lutheran Church; in 1815 became Professor of Theology in the Hartwick Seminary, and remained there for fifteen years. He published a *History of the Lutheran Church in America,* etc. He died in South Carolina, Feb. 20, 1853.

Hazelwood, JOHN, naval officer; born in England about 1726; settled in Philadelphia. In December, 1775, he was made superintendent of fire-ships; in September, 1777, became commander of the naval force of Pennsylvania. Col. William Brad-

shaw wrote in a letter, dated Oct. 7, 1777, that when Lord Howe, who had anchored with his squadron in Delaware Bay, sent word to Hazelwood to surrender his fleet, with the promise of the King's pardon, the latter replied that he would "defend the fleet to the last." He died in Philadelphia, Pa., about March 1, 1800.

Hazen, CHARLES DOWNER, historian; born in Barnet, Vt., March 17, 1868; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1889; was called to the chair of history in Smith College in 1894. He is the author of *Contemporary American Opinion of the French Revolution.*

Hazen, HENRY ALLEN, historian; born in Hartford, Vt., Dec. 27, 1832; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1854, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1857; held various Congregational pastorates in the New England States; became editor of the *Congregational Year-Book* in 1883. His publications include *The Ministry and Churches of New Hampshire; History of Billerica, Mass.; New Hampshire and Vermont* (historical address). He died in Norwich, Vt., Aug. 4, 1900.

Hazen, MOSES, military officer; born in Haverhill, Mass., in 1733; served in the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR (*q. v.*); was in the attack on Louisburg in 1758; and with Wolfe at Quebec in 1759, where he distinguished himself. He fought bravely at Sillery in 1760, and was made a lieutenant. A half-pay British officer, he was residing near St. John, Canada, when the American Revolution broke out. He furnished supplies to Montgomery's troops, and afterwards became an efficient officer in the Continental army. His property was destroyed by the British. In June, 1781, he was made a brigadier-general. He and his two brothers emigrated to Vermont after the war. He died in Troy, N. Y., Feb. 3, 1803.

Hazen, WILLIAM BABCOCK, military officer; born in West Hartford, Vt., Sept. 27, 1830; graduated at West Point in 1855; served against the Indians in California and Oregon (1856–57); afterwards was in Texas, and had several severe encounters; in one of these, hand-to-hand with Comanches, he was severely wounded. At the breaking out of the Civil War he was assistant Professor of Tactics at West Point, and was made captain in May, 1861. Taking command of the 41st Ohio Regiment, he joined Buell at Louisville in December; and in January had command of a brigade, with which he took a conspicuous part in the battle of Shiloh. After that he was very active in Kentucky, Tennessee, and northern Mississippi and Alabama, and did excellent service in the battle at Stone River or Murfreesboro, in protecting the left wing of the army from being turned by attacks in front and flank at the same time. He was commissioned brigadier-general of volunteers, Nov. 29, 1862. At Chickamauga and Missionary Ridge he was actively engaged, and he served through the Atlanta campaign. In Sherman's march to the sea he commanded a division, with which he captured Fort McAllister (December, 1864). He was engaged in the operations which ended in the surrender of Johnston's army; was brevetted major-general in 1865, and in 1880 was appointed chief signal-officer. He introduced the "cold-wave" signal, and published several military works. He died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 16, 1887.

Head, SIR FRANCIS BOND, author; born near Rochester, England, Jan. 1, 1793; entered the engineer corps of the army and served in the campaigns under Wellington. In 1825 he explored the gold and silver mines in the Argentine Republic. Late in 1835 he was appointed governor of Upper Canada, where his injudicious measures caused an insurrection, in which American sympathizers with the people became involved. He kept the outbreak in check until his resignation in March, 1838. The same year he was created a baronet. He displayed much versatility as an author, and many of his works were republished in the United States. He died in Croydon, England, July 20, 1875.

Headley, JOEL TYLER, author; born in Walton, N. Y., Dec. 30, 1813; graduated at Union College in 1839; later took up literary work. His publications include *Washington and His Generals; Life of Washington; Chaplains of the Revolution; The Great Rebellion; Grant and Sherman, their Campaigns and Generals; Farragut and Our Naval Commanders,* etc. He died in Newburg, N. Y., Jan. 16, 1897.

Headley, PHINEAS CAMP, clergyman; born in Walton, N. Y., June 29, 1819; became a lawyer in 1847, and later a clergyman. He published *Massachusetts in the Rebellion;* and biographies of Grant, O. M. Mitchell, Ericsson, Sheridan, Farragut, Sherman, etc. He died in Lexington, Mass., Jan. 5, 1903.

Hearst, PHOEBE, philanthropist; born in 1840; became a teacher; and was married to George F. Hearst, United States Senator from California, in 1861. She has established and endowed a number of free kindergartens in Washington, D. C., and San Francisco, and a kindergarten training-school in Washington; built and equipped several free libraries in mining towns, including one at Anaconda at a cost of $40,000, and one at Lead, S. D.; established clubs for working-girls in San Francisco, the National Cathedral School for Girls, and the School of Mines for the University of California, as a memorial to her husband; and agreed to erect two buildings for the University of California to cost between $3,000,000 and $4,000,000. In 1904 she notified various institutions she had been supporting that she would be obliged to withdraw her aid, owing to a diminution in her income.

Hearst, WILLIAM RANDOLPH, publisher; born in San Francisco, Cal., in 1863; son of George F., United States Senator, and Phœbe Hearst; received a collegiate education; became editor and proprietor of the San Francisco *Examiner* in 1886; purchased and became the editor of the New York *Journal* in 1895; established the New York *Evening Journal* in the following year; founded the Chicago *American* in 1900, and the Chicago *Examiner* in 1902. He was president of the National Association of Democratic Clubs; and a Democratic member of Congress in 1903–05. Early in 1904 he began a spirited canvass for the Democratic nomination for the Presidency, in which it was reported he spent $1,500,000. In the balloting in the convention for the nomination he received 200 votes. Immediately after Judge Parker's nomination Mr. Hearst congratulated him on his victory and pledged him his support.

Heath, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Roxbury, Mass., March 2, 1737; was bred a farmer; joined the Ancient and Honorable Artillery Company of Boston, and was made its commander in 1770. He was also colonel of a Suffolk regiment; was a representative in the General Assembly; member of the committees of correspondence and safety; delegate to the Provincial Congress (1774–75), and was made a brigadier-general early in 1776 in the Continental army. He rose to major-general in August following. He was very serviceable in organizing the undisciplined troops at Cambridge before the battle of Bunker Hill, and went to New York with Washington in the spring of 1776. After the battle of White Plains he took post in the Hudson Highlands, and was stationed there in 1779. He had supervision of Burgoyne's captured troops, in 1777, at Cambridge. He went to Rhode Island on the arrival of the French forces in 1780. General Heath was State Senator in 1791–92; probate judge of Norfolk county in 1793, and declined the office of lieutenant-governor in 1806, to which he had been chosen. He died in Roxbury, Jan. 24, 1814.

Hebrews. See JEWS.

Heckewelder, JOHN GOTTLIEB ERNESTUS, missionary; born in Bedford, England, March 12, 1743. Becoming a preacher in his youth, he came to America (1754), and labored forty years among the Indians of Pennsylvania, studying carefully their language, and producing a vocabulary. In 1762 he accompanied Christian Post on a mission to the Indians in Ohio; and in 1797 he was sent to superintend a mission on the Muskingum River. He settled at Bethlehem, Pa., after an adventurous career, and published (1819) a *History of the Manners and Customs of the Indian Nations who formerly inhabited Pennsylvania and the neighboring States.* He died in Bethlehem, Pa., Jan. 21, 1823. His daughter, JOHANNA MARIA, was born at the present village of Port Washington, April 20, 1781, and was the first white child born within the present limits of Ohio. She lived a maiden at Bethlehem, Pa., until about 1870. In a diary kept by the younger pupils of the Bethlehem boarding-school where Miss Heckewelder was educated, under date of Dec. 23 1788 (the year when Marietta,

O., was founded), occurs the following sentence: "Little Miss Maria Heckewelder's papa returned from Fort Pitt, which occasioned her and us great joy."

Heckman, CHARLES ADAM, military officer; born in Easton, Pa., Dec. 3, 1822; received an academic education; served through the Mexican and Civil wars; promoted brigadier-general of volunteers in November, 1862. On May 16, 1864, after he had repulsed a superior force of the enemy five times, he was captured, with his brigade, at Drury's Bluff, Va.; was a prisoner at Libby, Macon, Ga., and at Charleston, where he was one of the officers exposed to the fire of the National guns. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 14, 1896.

JOHANNA MARIA HECKEWELDER.

Heintzelman, SAMUEL PETER, military officer; born in Manheim, Pa., Sept. 30, 1805; graduated at West Point in 1826; served in the war with Mexico, organizing at Vera Cruz a battalion of recruits and convalescents, with whom he marched to the city of Mexico. After the war he commanded in the southern district of California, and effectually suppressed Indian hostilities. Soon after the treachery of Gen. David E. Twiggs he left Texas, and was made inspector-general in Washington, D. C. In May he was commissioned a brigadier-general of volunteers, and commanded a division under McDowell in the battle of Bull Run, where he was severely wounded. In the campaign on the Peninsula he commanded an army corps, having been made major-general of volunteers in May. General Heintzelman commanded the right wing of Pope's army in the battle of Manassas, or second battle of Bull Run, and afterwards took command of the defences of Washington. He retired in February, 1869, as colonel, and, by special act of Congress, was promoted to major-general on the retired list, April 29, following. He died in Washington, D. C., May 1, 1880.

SAMUEL P. HEINTZELMAN.

Heistand, HENRY OLCOT SHELDON, military officer; born near Richmond, O., April 30, 1856; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1878; became assistant adjutant-general in 1897. He is the author of *Alaska, Its History and Description*, etc.

Helena, BATTLE AT. There was a sharp struggle between the National and Confederate troops at Helena, Ark., on the west side of the Mississippi, on July 4, 1863. Gen. B. M. Prentiss was in command there. The Confederates in that region were under the command of General Holmes, assisted by Generals Price, Marmaduke, Fagan, Parsons, McRae, and Walker, and were the remnants of shattered armies, about 8,000 strong in effec-

tive men. The post at Helena was strongly fortified. It had a garrison of 3,000 men, supported by the gunboat *Tyler*. Holmes was ignorant of the real strength of Prentiss, and made a bold attack upon the works. At three o'clock in the afternoon the Confederates were repulsed at all points, and withdrew with a loss, reported by Holmes, of 20 per cent. of the entire force, or 1,636 men. Prentiss lost 250 men. The Confederate loss must have been much greater than Holmes reported, for Prentiss buried 300 of their dead left behind, and captured 1,100 men.

Hell Gate. See NEWTON, JOHN.

Helluland. Leif, the Northman, in a voyage from Greenland to Vinland, about the year 1000, discovered a country covered with rocks, which he named Helluland, slate land, supposed to be Labrador or Newfoundland.

Helper, HINTON ROWAN, author; born in North Carolina, Dec. 27, 1829; received an academic education, and projected three railways to extend eventually from Bering Strait to the Strait of Magellan. He is the author of *Impending Crisis of the South* (1857); *The Three American Railways; The Negroes in Negroland; The Land of Gold*, etc.

Helps, SIR ARTHUR, author; born in England in 1817; was educated at Cambridge. His publications relating to the United States include *Conquerors of the New World and their Bondsmen; The Spanish Conquest in America, and its Relation to the History of Slavery; The Life of Columbus*, etc. He died in London, March 7, 1875.

Henderson, DAVID BREMNER, legislator; born in Old Deer, Scotland, March 14, 1840; was brought to the United States in 1846, his family settling first in Illinois, and three years later in Iowa, where he was educated and admitted to the bar in 1865. He entered the Union army in September, 1861, as a private in the 12th Iowa Infantry. In the battle of Corinth, Feb. 26, 1863, he lost a leg, and in May of the same year was appointed commissioner of enrolment for the 3d District of Iowa. In June, 1864, he reentered the army, as colonel of the 46th Iowa Infantry. In 1865–69 he was collector of internal revenue for the 3d District of Iowa; in 1869-71 was assistant United States district attorney for the Northern Division of the District of Iowa. He was elected to Congress in 1882; was elected Speaker in 1899 and 1901; and declined renomination for Congress in 1902.

DAVID BREMNER HENDERSON.

Henderson, JOHN BROOKS, lawyer; born near Danville, Va., Nov. 16, 1826; received an academic education; admitted to the Missouri bar in 1848; was a member of the State legislature in 1848–56; served in the State militia in 1861; and was a member of the convention called to determine the question of secession; United States Senator in 1862–69; and a special commissioner to make peace with the Indians in 1867. He was the author of the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States abolishing slavery.

Henderson, THOMAS JEFFERSON, lawyer; born in Brownsville, Tenn., Nov. 29, 1824; received a collegiate education; practised law in Illinois; was a member of the State legislature in 1854–56, and of the State Senate in 1856–60. He served in the Union army during the Civil War as colonel and brevet brigadier-general; and was a member of Congress in 1875–95.

Hendrick, Mohawk chief; born about 1680; was son of a Mohegan chief, and married Hunnis, a Mohawk maiden, daughter of a chief. He was a leading spirit in that nation, wise in council and eloquent in speech. He attended the colonial con-

vention at Albany in 1754, and in 1755 joined Gen. William Johnson with 200 Mohawk warriors, at the head of Lake George. In company with Colonel Williams, he and his followers were ambushed at Rocky Brook, near Lake George, and he was slain, Sept. 8, 1755.

Hendricks, THOMAS ANDREWS, statesman; born near Zanesville, O., Sept. 7, 1819. In 1822 his father settled in Indiana, where the son was educated at

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South Hanover College, and became a lawyer. He was an active member of the State constitutional convention of 1850, and a member of Congress from the Indianapolis District from 1851 to 1855. He was Democratic United States Senator from 1863 to 1869, was chosen governor of Indiana for four years in 1872, and Vice-President of the United States on the ticket with Mr. Cleveland in 1884. He had second place with Samuel J. Tilden in 1876. He died in Indianapolis, Ind., Nov 25, 1885.

Hennepin, LOUIS, Récollet, or Franciscan, missionary and explorer; born in Ath, Belgium, about 1640. Entering the Franciscan order, he made a tour through Germany and Italy, preached a while, had charge of a hospital, and was a regimental chaplain at the battle of Senef, between the Prince of Condé and William of Orange, in 1674. The next year he was ordered to Canada, and made the voyage with Bishop Laval and Robert Cavalier de la Salle. After preaching in Quebec, he went to the Indian mission at Fort Frontenac, and visited the Mohawk country. In 1678 he accompanied La Salle to the Western wilds, with Chevalier de Tonti and the Sieur de la Motte. Left by La Salle a little below the present site of Peoria to prosecute discoveries, he and two others penetrated to the Mississippi in a canoe, by way of the Illinois River, in February and March, 1680. They explored the Mississippi northward until, in April, they were captured by a party of Sioux and carried to their villages. Hennepin, at the beginning of the voyage, had invoked the aid of St. Anthony of Padua, and when he discovered the great rapids of the upper Mississippi he gave them the name of Falls of St. Anthony. He claimed to have discovered the sources of the Mississippi, but never went above the Falls of St. Anthony, where he carved the arms of France on the forest trees. In July (1680) Hennepin and his companions were rescued from the Sioux by Graysolon du Luht (Duluth), and they were taken down to the Wisconsin River and made their way to Lake Michigan, and so on to Quebec. From the latter place Hennepin embarked for France, and there, in 1683, he published a full account of his explorations, which contains many exaggerations. Yet it is a work of much value, as it pictures the life and habits of the Indians of the Northwest. In 1697 he published his *New Discovery of a vast Country situated in America,* which contained his former work, with a description of a voyage down the Mississippi, largely copied from the narrative of Leclerc. This fraud was exposed by Dr. Sparks. Hennepin never went down the Mississippi below the mouth of the Wisconsin River, yet, in that work, he claimed to be the first who descended the great river to its mouth. He lost the favor of Louis XIV., and when he endeavored to return to Canada the King ordered his arrest on his arrival there. The time of his death is unknown. As late as 1701 he was in Rome, seeking to establish a mission on the Mississippi.

Henningsen, CHARLES FREDERICK, military officer; born in England in 1815; served in the Carlist army of Spain, in which he was made a colonel. When the Civil War broke out he joined the Con-

federate army, receiving the appointment of colonel of the 3d Regiment of Wise's brigade; later became a brigadier-general. He made important improvements in small-arms, and directed the manufacture of the Minié rifles when they were first made in the United States. He died in Washington, D. C., June 14, 1877.

Henrico College. The London Company took the first steps for establishing schools in the English-American colonies. In 1618 the King, at their request, permitted contributions to be made in England for "building and planting a college at Henrico for the training-up of the children of the infidels," the Indians. Henrico was a settlement on the James River, below the site of Richmond, established by Gov. Sir Thomas Dale, and so named in honor of Henry, Prince of Wales. The company appropriated 10,000 acres of land at Henrico as an endowment for the proposed college or university. Edwin Sandys took special interest in the undertaking, and wealthy and influential persons in England, as well as in the colony, made generous donations for it. In 1620 George Thorpe, a member of the council for Virginia, was sent to take charge of the college land, and preparations were in progress for establishing the institution when the dreadful massacre by the Indians (1622) occurred. Mr. Thorpe and the minister at Henrico were victims, and a blight fell upon the enterprise. In 1621 Rev. Patrick Copeland, returning from the East Indies in the *Royal James*, one of the ships of the East India Company, commanded by Martin Pring, collected about $350 from members of that company on board for the purpose of establishing a church or a school in Virginia. The London Company determined to found a free school at Charles City, and call it the "East India School." Early in 1622 a carpenter, with apprentices, was sent over to construct a building for it, and provision was made for a school-master, when the massacre paralyzed all efforts in that direction. The university scheme was abandoned, but in 1625 efforts were made to establish the East India School, and this project also failed. No school for the education of the Indians in Virginia was established afterwards until Robert Boyle's benefactions towards the close of the century. See WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE.

Henry, EDWARD LAMSON, artist; born in Charleston, S. C., Jan. 12, 1841; studied in Philadelphia and Paris. His paintings include *Grant's Headquarters at City Point; Battle of Germantown, 1777; Meeting of Washington and Rochambeau,* etc.

Henry, FORT. See page 380.

Henry, GUY VERNOR, military officer; born in Fort Smith, Indian Territory, March 9, 1839; graduated at West Point in 1861, and assigned to the 1st Artillery as second lieutenant. In the battle of Pocotaligo, S. C., Oct. 22, 1862, he distinguished himself and was brevetted captain. In the autumn of 1863 he was made colonel of the 40th Massachusetts Regiment. He served in the Army of the James and before Petersburg. On Sept. 29, 1864, he was brevetted lieutenant-

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colonel, and, at the close of the war, brevetted colonel in the regular army and brigadier-general of volunteers. He served with distinction in the Indian wars of 1874–76. With a detachment of the

9th Cavalry he made a notable march in December, 1890, to the relief of the Pine Ridge Agency after the sanguinary conflict between the Sioux and the 7th Cavalry at Wounded Knee Creek. He became lieutenant-colonel of the 7th Cavalry, Jan. 30, 1892; was given command of Fort Myer, Va.; was commissioned colonel of the 10th Cavalry, June 1, 1897; appointed a brigadier-general of volunteers, May 4, 1898; in October of the latter year was promoted to brigadier-general in the regular army; and on Dec. 7, 1898, was promoted to major-general of volunteers. He participated in the final actions around Santiago and then went to Porto Rico with General Miles. In December, 1898, he was transferred from the command of the district of Ponce to the post of governor-general of Porto Rico. In April, 1899, he relinquished his last command on account of ill-health and returned to the United States, where, on Oct. 18, he was given command of the Department of Missouri. He died in New York City, Oct. 27, 1899. General Henry was author of *Records of Civilian Appointments, United States Army; Army Catechism for Non-commissioned Officers and Soldiers; Target Practice;* and *Practical Information for Non-commissioned Officers on Field Duty.* After his death the citizens of the United States contributed a handsome sum of money for the support of his family.

Henry, JOHN, naval officer; born Sept. 28, 1731; joined the British navy about 1744; was promoted captain for bravery at Mud Island, in the Delaware. He was with the British fleet which in May, 1778, destroyed the frigates *Washington, Effingham,* and others, besides twenty-three brigs and nine merchantmen; was promoted admiral in 1804. He died in Kent, England, Aug. 6, 1829.

Henry, JOHN, adventurer; born in Ireland; became a naturalized citizen of the United States. He produced a temporary excitement in 1812 by "disclosures" concerning a plot for the destruction of the Union. According to his story, he purchased an estate in Vermont, near the Canada frontier, and there studied law for five years, and amused himself by writing articles against republican institutions, which he detested. These essays at length attracted the attention of the governor of Canada (Sir J. H. Craig), who invited him to Montreal, from which he sent him on a mission to Boston early in 1809. That was the period of the embargo (see EMBARGO ACTS), when violent opposition to the measure appeared in New England. It was thought that the United States might declare war against England, and Henry was instructed to ascertain whether rumors that in such an event the New England States would be disposed to separate from the rest of the Union had any solid foundation. He was to make diligent inquiries at the proper sources of information; and should any such disposition appear, and with it an inclination to form a connection with Great Britain, Henry was to intimate to the leaders that the British government might be communicated with through Governor Craig; and should the prospect seem promising, he was to exhibit these instructions as his credentials. Henry was given to understand that he would be well rewarded for his pains. He reached Boston March 9, 1809, where he remained three months, till the apparent settlement of affairs by Erskine's arrangement, when Henry was recalled by Craig.

During that time he had written many encouraging letters to Craig's secretary. He spoke of the extreme discontent in New England, and expressed an opinion that, if war against England should be declared, the legislature of Massachusetts would take the lead in setting up a separate Northern confederation, which might result, perhaps, in some connection with Great Britain. He finally reported that a withdrawal from the Union was an unpopular idea there, but that there were leaders in favor of it. He did not mention any names. Henry went to England for the reward for his services, when he was treated coolly by the officers of the government, and, in a letter from Under-Secretary Peel, he was referred to Craig's successor in the Canadian government. Offended at this treatment, Henry did not go to Canada, but landed in Boston, accompanied by a Frenchman who called himself Count de Crillon, but who was an impostor and swindler. Henry visited Governor Gerry, and from him obtained a letter of introduction to President

Madison. He then went to Washington, and laid the whole matter before the President, who was so well satisfied of the great value of Henry's disclosures, at the moment when war was about to be declared against England—overwhelming proof of the secret designs of the British government to destroy the new republic—that he gave Henry $50,000 out of the secret service fund in his possession for the entire correspondence of the parties to the affair in this country and in England. At Philadelphia, Henry wrote a letter to the President (Feb. 26, 1811) as a preface to his disclosures, and on March 9 he sailed for France in the United States schooner *Wasp*, where he would be safe from British vengeance.

On the same day the documents were laid before Congress, with a message from the President, in which he charged that the British government had employed a secret agent in fomenting disaffection in the capital of Massachusetts to the constituted authorities of the nation, and "in intrigues with the disaffected for the purpose of bringing about resistance to the laws, and eventually, in concert with a British force, of destroying the Union and forming the eastern part thereof into a political connection with Great Britain." Both political parties endeavored to make capital out of these "disclosures," but the excitement created soon died away. Mr. Foster, the British minister at Washington, declared publicly that he had no knowledge of the affair. Lord Holland called upon the British government (May 5) for an explanation, and gave notice that he should call for an investigation. Every pretext was brought to bear to defeat such a measure; but when it could no longer be resisted, the ministry cast the odium of the transaction on Sir James Craig. Lord Holland declared that, until such investigation should be had, the fact that Great Britain had entered into a "dishonorable and atrocious intrigue against a friendly power would stand unrefuted." And so it stands to this day.

Henry, JOSEPH, physicist; born in Albany, N. Y., Dec. 17, 1797; was a watchmaker for some years. In 1826 he was appointed Professor of Mathematics in the Albany Academy, and in 1827 he began a series of experiments in electricity. He fully developed the power of electro-magnetism, and perfected the electro-magnetic telegraph. As early as 1831 he transmitted signals through a wire more than a mile in length, an account of which was published in *Silliman's American Journal of Science.* He was called to the chair of natural philosophy in the College of New Jersey, at Princeton; and, going to England in 1837, he explained to Professor Wheatstone his method of ringing a church bell 100 miles away by an electro-magnet. On the organization of the Smithsonian Institution

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at Washington, in 1846, Professor Henry was appointed its secretary, which post he filled with great ability until his death, May 13, 1878. He published many scientific papers.

Henry, PATRICK, statesman; born in Studley, Hanover co., Va., May 29, 1736; was of Scotch descent. His father was a native of Aberdeen, and liberally educated. Embarking in commercial pursuits at the age of fifteen years, he was unsuccessful. Marrying Miss Shelton, daughter of an innkeeper, at eighteen, he assisted, at times, in "keeping a hotel"; and finally, after six weeks' study, he took up the profession of the law. But want of business kept him very poor, and he was twenty-seven years old before his oratorical powers were discovered. Then, in a celebrated case tried in the courthouse of Hanover county, he made such

a wonderful forensic speech that his fame as an orator was established. Henry became a member of the Virginia House of

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Burgesses in 1765, wherein, that year, he introduced resolutions for bold opposition to the Stamp Act, and made a most remarkable speech. From that time he was regarded as a leader of the radical patriots of his colony. He was admitted to the bar of the highest court in Virginia in 1769, and in 1773 he was appointed one of the Virginia committee of correspondence. As a delegate to the first Continental Congress, in 1774, he opened the business of that body by declaring the union of the provinces, and saying, "I am not a *Virginian*—I am an *American*." He was an eloquent leader in the famous provincial convention at Richmond (March, 1775), and, at the head of the militia of Hanover, compelled LORD DUNMORE (*q. v.*) to restore powder he had removed from the colonial magazine at Williamsburg. For a short time Henry was in the military service, and was the first governor of the State of Virginia (1776–79). He was again elected governor after the war; and was a member of the State convention that ratified the national Constitution, he opposing it with all his strength because it menaced State supremacy. In 1794 Henry retired from the bar, and took up his abode at Red Hill, in Charlotte. Washington appointed him Secretary of State in 1795; but he declined the nomination, as he did that of envoy to France, offered by President Adams, and of governor offered by the people. Henry was elected to the State Senate in 1799, but, dying June 6, 1799, never took his seat.

When the news of the passage of the Stamp Act and kindred measures reached Virginia (May, 1765) the House of Burgesses was in session. The aristocratic leaders in that body hesitated, and the session was drawing near its close, when Henry, finding the older and more influential members disinclined to move in the matter, offered a series of resolutions, in which all the rights of British-born subjects were claimed for the Virginians; denied any authority, anywhere, excepting in the Provincial Assembly, to impose taxes upon them; and denounced the attempt to vest that authority elsewhere as inconsistent with the ancient constitution and subversive of liberty in Great Britain as well as in America. The aristocratic members were startled, and a

HANOVER COURT-HOUSE.

hot debate ensued. Henry supported his resolutions with rare eloquence and boldness. Some rose from their seats, and

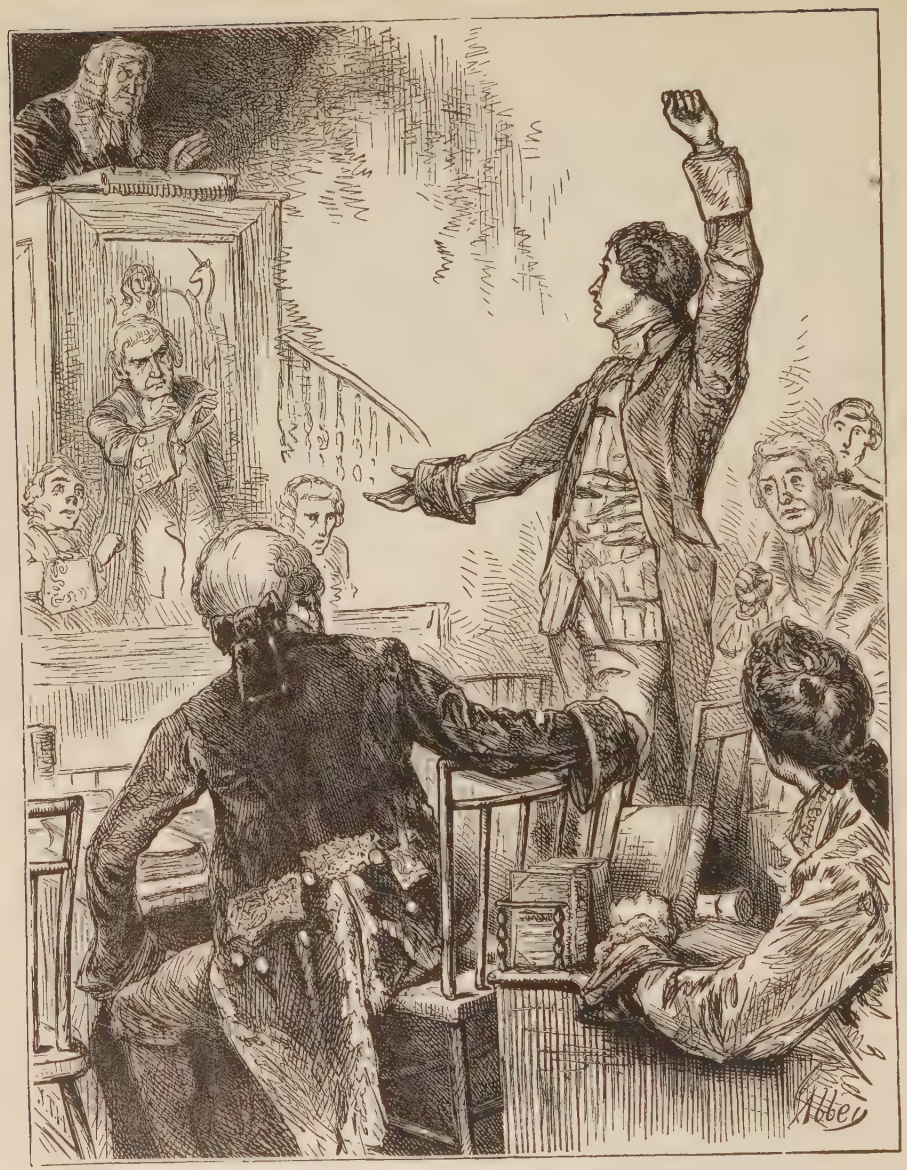
others sat in breathless silence. At length, when alluding to tyrants, Henry exclaimed, "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles the First his Cromwell, and George the Third—" At this moment there was a cry of "Treason! treason!" from different parts of the house. Henry paused a moment, and concluded his sentence by saying "may profit by these examples. If that be treason, make the most of it." The resolutions passed in spite of the old leaders; but in Henry's absence, the next

STATUE OF PATRICK HENRY AT RICHMOND, VA.

day, they were reconsidered and softened. But a manuscript copy had already been sent to Philadelphia, and they soon appeared in the newspapers, producing a wonderful effect. These resolutions were followed in Massachusetts by the recommendation of a committee of the General Assembly for a congress of delegates from the several colonies to meet in New York City in October following. See STAMP ACT CONGRESS.

After his death, there was found among his papers one sealed, and thus endorsed: "Enclosed are the resolutions of the Virginia Assembly, in 1765, concerning the Stamp Act. Let my executors open this paper." Within was found a copy of the resolutions in his handwriting. On the back of the paper containing the resolutions is the following endorsement, also in his handwriting: "The within resolutions passed the House of Burgesses in May, 1765. They formed the first opposition to the Stamp Act, and the scheme of taxing America by the British Parliament. All the colonies, either through fear, or want of opportunity to form an opposition, or from influence of some kind or other, had remained silent. I had been for the first time elected a burgess a few days before, was young, inexperienced, unacquainted with the forms of the house, and the members that composed it. Finding the men of weight averse to opposition, and the commencement of the tax at hand, and that no person was likely to step forth, I determined to venture, and alone, unadvised, and unassisted, on the blank leaf of an old law-book, wrote the within. Upon offering them to the house, violent debates ensued. Many threats were uttered, and much abuse cast on me, by the party for submission. After a long and warm contest, the resolutions passed by a very small majority, perhaps of one or two only. The alarm spread throughout America with astonishing quickness, and the ministerial party were overwhelmed. The great point of resistance to British taxation was universally established in the colonies. This brought on the war which finally separated the two countries, and gave independence to ours. Whether this will prove a blessing or a curse, will depend upon the use our people make of the blessings which a gracious God had bestowed upon us. If they are wise, they will be great and happy. If they are of a contrary character, they will be miserable. Righteousness alone can exalt them as a nation. Reader, whoever thou art, remember this; and in thy sphere, practise virtue thyself, and encourage it in others."

The Liberty or Death Speech.—On March 23, 1775, he offered resolutions in the Richmond convention to organize the militia and put the colony in a state of



"GIVE ME LIBERTY OR GIVE ME DEATH."

defence. The resolutions met with great opposition, and in supporting them he made the following address:

Mr. President,—No man thinks more highly than I do of the patriotism, as well as abilities, of the very worthy gentlemen who have just addressed the house. But different men often see the same subject in different lights; and, therefore, I hope it will not be thought disrespectful to those gentlemen if, entertaining, as I do,

opinions of a character very opposite to theirs, I shall speak forth my sentiments freely and without reserve. This is no time for ceremony. The question before the house is one of awful moment to this country. For my own part, I consider it as nothing less than a question of freedom or slavery; and in proportion to the magnitude of the subject ought to be the freedom of the debate. It is only in this way that we can hope to arrive at truth, and fulfil the great responsibility which we hold to God and our country. Should I keep back my opinions at such a time, through fear of giving offence, I should consider myself as guilty of treason towards my country, and of an act of disloyalty towards the majesty of Heaven, which I revere above all earthly kings.

Mr. President, it is natural to man to indulge in the illusions of hope. We are apt to shut our eyes against a painful truth, and listen to the song of that siren, till she transforms us into beasts. Is this the part of wise men, engaged in a great and arduous struggle for liberty? Are we disposed to be of the number of those who, having eyes, see not, and having ears, hear not, the things which so nearly concern their temporal salvation? For my part, whatever anguish of spirit it may cost, I am willing to know the whole truth; to know the worst and to provide for it.

I have but one lamp by which my feet are guided, and that is the lamp of experience. I know of no way of judging of the future but by the past. And judging by the past, I wish to know what there has been in the conduct of the British ministry for the last ten years to justify those hopes with which gentlemen have been pleased to solace themselves and the house? Is it that insidious smile with which our petition has been lately received? Trust it not, sir. It will prove a snare to your feet. Suffer not yourselves to be betrayed with a kiss. Ask yourselves how this gracious reception of our petition comports with those warlike preparations which cover our waters and darken our land. Are fleets and armies necessary to a work of love and reconciliation? Have we shown ourselves so unwilling to be reconciled that force must be called in to win back our love? Let us not deceive ourselves, sir. These are the implements of war and subjugation; the last arguments to which kings resort. I ask gentlemen, sir, what means this martial array, if its purpose be not to force us to submission? Can gentlemen assign any other possible motive for it? Has Great Britain any enemy, in this quarter of the world, to call for all this accumulation of navies and armies? No, sir, she has none. They are meant for us; they can be meant for no other. They are sent over to bind and rivet upon us those chains which the British ministry have been so long forging. And what have we to oppose to them? Shall we try argument? Sir, we have been trying that for the last ten years. Have we anything new to offer upon the subject? Nothing. We have held the subject up in every light of which it is capable; but it has all been in vain. Shall we resort to entreaty and humble supplication? What terms shall we find which have not been already exhausted? Let us not, I beseech you, sir, deceive ourselves longer. Sir, we have done everything that could be done to avert the storm which is now coming on. We have petitioned; we have remonstrated; we have supplicated; we have prostrated ourselves before the throne, and have implored its interposition to arrest the tyrannical hands of the ministry and Parliament. Our petitions have been slighted; our remonstrances have produced additional violence and insult; our supplications have been disregarded; and we have been spurned with contempt, from the foot of the throne! In vain, after these things, may we indulge the fond hope of peace and reconciliation. There is no longer any room for hope. If we wish to be free; if we mean to preserve inviolate those inestimable privileges for which we have been so long contending; if we mean not basely to abandon the noble struggle in which we have been so long engaged, and which we have pledged ourselves never to abandon, until the glorious object of our contest shall be obtained, we must fight! I repeat it, sir, we must fight! An appeal to arms and to the God of Hosts is all that is left us!

They tell us, sir, that we are weak; unable to cope with so formidable an adversary. But when shall we be stronger?

Will it be the next week or the next year? Will it be when we are totally disarmed, and when a British guard shall be stationed in every house? Shall we gather strength by irresolution and inaction? Shall we acquire the means of effectual resistance by lying supinely on our backs and hugging the delusive phantom of hope, until our enemies shall have bound us hand and foot? Sir, we are not weak, if we make a proper use of those means which the God of nature hath placed in our power. Three millions of people, armed in the holy cause of liberty, and in such a country as that which we possess, are invincible by any force which our enemy can send against us. Besides, sir, we shall not fight our battles alone. There is a just God who presides over the destinies of nations, and who will raise up friends to fight our battles for us. The battle, sir, is not to the strong alone; it is to the vigilant, the active, the brave. Besides, sir, we have no election. If we were base enough to desire it, it is now too late to retire from the contest. There is no retreat, but in submission and slavery! Our chains are forged! Their clanking may be heard on the plains of Boston! The war is inevitable—and let it come! I repeat it, sir, let it come.

It is vain, sir, to extenuate the matter. Gentlemen may cry, Peace, peace—but there is no peace. The war is actually begun! The next gale that sweeps from the north will bring to our ears the clash of resounding arms! Our brethren are already in the field! Why stand we here idle? What is it that gentlemen wish? What would they have? Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God! I know not what course others may take; but as for me, give me liberty or give me death!

Henry, Pierre François, author; born in Nancy, France, May 28, 1759; became a lawyer, and later went on the stage, but did not succeed. He translated into the French Marshall's *Life of Washington,* and was the author of *Description of North America.* He died in Paris, Aug. 12, 1833.

Henry, William Seaton, military officer; born in Albany, N. Y., in 1816; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1835; served in the Florida War in 1841–42, and in the Mexican War; received the brevet of major in September, 1846, in recognition of his bravery in the action at Monterey. He was the author of *Campaign Sketches of the War with Mexico.* He died in New York City, March 5, 1851.

Henry, Fort, an important Confederate fortification at a bend of the Tennessee River, where it approaches the Cumberland River within about 12 miles, on the right bank, and on a high hill opposite Fort Hickman. At the beginning of February, 1862, a land force under General Grant, and a flotilla of gunboats under Commodore Foote, were sent to capture these two forts. They appeared about 2 miles below Fort Henry on Feb. 3. That fort was armed with seventeen great guns, twelve of which swept the river, and the garrison and troops encamped outside of the fort numbered less than 3,000. These were commanded by General Tilghman, of Maryland, a graduate of West Point Academy. Foote placed four of his iron-clad gunboats in position to bombard the fort, while two of his unarmored vessels fished up torpedoes with which the Confederates had strewn the river bottom. Some of the troops went up the left side of the river to silence the guns of Fort Hickman, when the garrison fled. Meanwhile Foote opened (Feb. 6) a heavy fire on Fort Henry. It was so severe that in an hour the garrison were panic-stricken. The troops outside of the fort had fled to Fort Donelson (*q. v.*), 12 miles distant, on the Cumberland River; and only the commander and less than 100 men remained in the fort to surrender to Foote. Grant and the land troops did not arrive until after the surrender, when the fort was turned over to him. The Nationals lost two killed and thirty-eight wounded. Of the latter, twenty-nine were wounded and scalded on the gunboat *Essex* by steam let out of the boilers by the piercing of a 32-pound shell. As it passed it took off a portion of the head of Lieut. S. B. Britton, the aide of Captain Porter, of the *Essex.* This victory was a very important one. The Nationals were now fairly planted in the rear of the Confederates at Columbus, Ky.; and if they should capture Fort Donelson,

on the Cumberland, the Confederates believed their cause would be ruined in Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri. The first great step towards the capture of Fort Donelson had been taken. Halleck telegraphed to McClellan, "Fort Henry is

MAP OF FORT HENRY.

ours! The flag of the Union is re-established on the soil of Tennessee. It will never be removed." The Secretary of the Navy wrote to Foote: "The country appreciates your gallant deeds, and this department desires to convey to you and your brave associates its profound thanks for the service you have rendered."

Henshaw, DAVID, author; born in Leicester, Mass., April 2, 1791; became a strong Democrat and a stanch supporter of free-trade policy. President Tyler appointed him Secretary of the Navy, July 24, 1843, but he served a short time only as his nomination was rejected. He was the author of *Letters on the Internal Improvement and Commerce of the West.* He died in Leicester, Mass., Nov. 11, 1852.

Herbert, HILARY ABNER, lawyer; born in Laurensville, S. C., March 12, 1834; studied in the universities of Alabama and Virginia, was admitted to the bar; served in the Confederate army; was wounded in the battle of the Wilderness; promoted colonel of the 8th Alabama Volunteers; settled in Montgomery, Ala., in 1872, to practise law; was a member of Congress in 1877–93; and Secretary of the Navy in 1893–97.

Herkimer, NICHOLAS, military officer; born about 1715 or 1720; was made a lieutenant of provincials in 1758, and was in command at Fort Herkimer during the attack of the French and Indians upon it that year. In 1775 he was appointed colonel of the 1st Battalion of Tryon county militia. He was also chairman of the county committee of safety; and in September, 1776, he was made brigadier-general by the provincial convention of New York. He commanded the Tryon county militia in the battle at Oriskany (Aug. 6, 1777), where he was severely wounded in the leg by a bullet, and he bled to death Aug. 16, 1777. On Oct. 4 following the Continental Congress voted the erection of a monument to his memory of the value of $500. This amount was afterwards increased by Congress, private subscriptions, and the New York legislature to more than $10,000, and the monument in the form of an obelisk was erected in 1884.

Hermitage, THE. See JACKSON, ANDREW.

Hero Fund, a fund of $15,000,000 given by Andrew Carnegie, April 15, 1904, for the purpose of rewarding deeds of exceptional heroism.

Herrnhuters. See MORAVIANS.

Herron, FRANCIS JAY, military officer; born in Pittsburg, Pa., Feb. 17, 1837; graduated at the Western University of Pennsylvania in 1853; entered the Union army as a captain in the 1st Iowa Volunteers in 1861. He was in the battle of Wilson's Creek; and in the battle of Pea Ridge, he commanded the 9th Iowa Regiment, which he had raised, and of which he was lieutenant-colonel. In July, 1862, he was promoted to brigadier-general; in November, 1862, was made a major-general; and in 1863 took part in the capture of Vicksburg. He was with General Banks afterwards in his operations in Louisiana. After the war he practised law in New Orleans; was United States marshal for Louisiana, and Secretary of State; and in 1873 removed to New York, where he died Jan. 8, 1902.

Hessian Fly, the American wheat midge, destructive to wheat in the United States, whither it is said to have been brought by the Hessian soldiers in British pay during the Revolutionary War, in 1786, 1846, and 1886. The fly also occasioned much destruction in England and Scotland in 1788, 1887, and 1890.

Hessians. During the Revolutionary War Great Britain hired a large number of auxiliaries from the Landgrave of Hesse, the Count of Hesse-Hanau, the Duke of Brunswick, the Margrave of Anspach-Bayreuth, the Prince of Waldeck, and the Prince of Anhalt-Zerbst. Nearly 30,000 were brought to America. Nearly 13,000 of them never returned to Germany. A small proportion of these had been killed in battle or had died of their wounds. Many had died of sickness. Others had deserted, and the remainder settled in America at the end of the war. England paid $35 for each man killed, $12 for each man wounded, and in addition paid an annual sum of nearly $60,000 to the Duke of Brunswick, $550,000 to the Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, and proportionate sums to the other princes. The total amount paid by England is unknown, as the records are incomplete and the sums voted by Parliament for the purpose of paying these troops cannot be identified (see GERMAN MERCENARIES). The best book on the subject of the German auxiliaries of Great Britain in the Revolutionary War is *The Hessians in the Revolution,* by Edward J. Lowell, from which the following tables are taken:

TABLE OF THE NUMBER OF TROOPS SENT TO AMERICA BY EACH ONE OF THE GERMAN STATES, AND OF THE NUMBER THAT RETURNED.

The numbers originally given in Schlözer's *Staats-Anzeigen* (vol. vi. pp. 521, 522), were corrected by Kapp as to the Anspach contingent.

Brunswick sent in 1776	4,300
" " March, 1777	224
" " April, 1778	475
" " April, 1779	286
" " May, 1780	266
" " April, 1782	172
Total	5,723
Returned in the autumn of 1783	2,708
Did not return	3,015
Hesse-Cassel sent in 1776	12,805
" " December, 1777	403
" " March, 1779	993
" " May, 1780	915
" " April, 1781	915
" " April, 1782	961
Total	16,992
Returned in the autumn of 1783 and the spring of 1784	10,492
Did not return	6,500
Hesse-Hanau, under various treaties	2,038
" recruits sent in April, 1781	50
" " April, 1782	334
Total	2,422
Returned in the autumn of 1783	1,441
Did not return	981
Anspach-Bayreuth sent in 1777	1,603
" " " 1779	157
" " " 1780	152
" " " 1781	205
" " " 1782	236
Total	2,353
Returned in the autumn of 1783	1,183
Did not return	1,170
Waldeck sent in 1776	670
" " April, 1777	89
" " February, 1778	140
" " May, 1779	23
" " April, 1781	144
" " April, 1782	159
Total	1,225
Returned in the autumn of 1788	505
Did not return	720
Anhalt-Zerbst sent in 1778	600
" " April, 1779	82
" " May, 1780	50
" " April, 1781	420
Total	1,152
Returned in the autumn of 1783	984
Did not return	168
Total number sent	29,867
Total number returned	17,313
Total number of those who did not return	12,554

Of the 12,554 who did not return Mr. Lowell's estimate is as follows:

Killed and died of wounds	1,200
Died of illness and accident	6,354
Deserted	5,000
Total	12,554

ESTIMATE OF THE LOSSES SUSTAINED BY THE GERMANS IN THE PRINCIPAL BATTLES OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.

	Killed.	Wounded.	Missing.
Long Island	2	25	
Sept. 15, 1776	2	16	
Sept. 16, 1776	1	1	
Oct. 9 to Oct. 23 (including Chatterton Hill)	13	63	23
Fort Washington	56	276	
Trenton	17	78	
Assanpink (Jan. 2, 1777)	4	11	
Burgoyne's Campaign to Oct. 6, 1777	164	284	
Burgoyne's Campaign from Oct. 7 to 16	25	75	
Skirmish, Sept. 3, 1777	1	19	
Brandywine, Chasseurs	7	39	
" other Hessians	2	16	
Red Bank	82	229	60
Newport	19	96	13
Stono Ferry	9	34	
Charleston	11	62	
Springfield	25	75	
Baton Rouge	25	8	
Pensacola	15	45	
Guildford Court-house	15	69	4
Yorktown	53	131	27
Total	548	1,652	127

Heth, HENRY, military officer; born in Black Heath, Va., Dec. 16, 1825; graduated at West Point in 1847; left the service and joined the Confederates in April, 1861, and entered the service of Virginia as brigadier-general. He was made a Confederate major-general in May, 1863, and commanded a division of A. P. Hill's corps in Virginia. He fought at Gettysburg, and in the campaign in defence of Richmond (1864–65), and surrendered with Lee. He died in Washington, D. C., Sept. 27, 1899.

Heu, JACQUES D'. See JESUIT MISSIONS.

Hewat, ALEXANDER, historian; born in Scotland about 1745; came to America before the Revolutionary War, but when that struggle became imminent he returned to England. He was the author of *South Carolina and Charleston.* He died in London, in 1829.

Hewes, JOSEPH, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Kingston, N. J., in 1730. His parents were Quakers, and he was educated at the College of New Jersey. He was engaged in business at Edenton, N. C., in 1760, and was a member of the colonial legislature in 1763. Mr. Hewes was a delegate in the first Continental Congress, and was on the committee to "state the rights of the colonies." As the head of the naval committee, he was, in effect, the first Secretary of the Navy. He declined a re-election in 1777, but resumed his seat in 1779. He died in Philadelphia, Nov. 10, 1779.

Hewitt, ABRAM STEVENS, manufacturer; born in Haverstraw, N. Y., July 31, 1822; graduated at Columbia College in 1842; admitted to the bar in 1845. Shortly after beginning the practice of law he became a partner of Peter Cooper, was active in the plan of the Cooper Union, became a member of Congress, and, with the exception of one term, held a seat in the House of Representatives in 1874–86; was mayor of New York City in 1887–89. He published an address on *A Century of Mining and Metallurgy in the United States.* He died in New York, Jan. 18, 1903.

Heyburn, WELDON BRINTON, lawyer; born in Delaware county, Pa., May 23, 1852; admitted to the bar in 1876; removed to Idaho in 1883, where he has since practised. He was a delegate to the Republican National conventions of 1888, 1892 and 1900; and a United States Senator in 1903–09.

Heyward, THOMAS, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in St. Luke's parish, S. C., in 1746; studied law in England; was a member of the first General Assembly of South Carolina after the flight of the royal governor; of the committee of safety, and a delegate in Congress from 1775 to 1778, when he was appointed a judge. He was also in active military service in South Carolina, and in 1780 was wounded. Captured at the fall of Charleston, he was sent a prisoner to St. Augustine. He retired from public life in 1799, and died in St. Luke's parish, March 6, 1809.

H. H. (HELEN HUNT). See JACKSON, HELEN MARIA FISKE.

Hiacoomes, Indian preacher; born about 1610; became the first Indian convert to Christianity in New England. When the first white settlers landed at Martha's Vineyard (1642), he was there, and he was converted under the preaching of Thomas Mayhew. He learned to read, and in 1645 he began to preach to his countrymen. An Indian church was formed there, and Hiacoomes was ordained pastor, and Tackanash was appointed teacher, by Eliot and Colton. He died about 1690.

Hiawatha, the reputed founder of the Iroquois Confederacy. Tradition tells us that he came from above, dwelt among the Onondagas, and caused the five related nations to form a confederacy for their mutual protection (see IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY). The people called him Hiawatha, the "wise man." When they had assembled at the great conference on the border of the lake, Hiawatha appeared in a white canoe, with his young daughter; and as they walked up the bank, a sound like a rushing wind was heard in the air. Then a dark object, increasing in size every moment as it approached, appeared in the heavens. Fear seized the people, and they fled. Hiawatha stood firm. The object was an immense white heron, which fell upon and crushed the beautiful girl, at the same time being destroyed itself. The father was unhurt, and after grieving three days for the loss of his darling child, he reappeared at the council, and addressed the assembled nations. He told the Mohawks that they should be the first nation, because they were warlike and mighty, and should be called the "Great Tree"; the Oneidas were made the second nation, because they were wise in council, and received the name of the "Everlasting Stone"; the Onondagas were the third nation, because they were gifted in speech and mighty in war, and they were named the "Great Mountain"; the Cayugas were the fourth nation, for they were cunning hunters, and they received the name of the "Dark Forest"; and the Senecas were the fifth nation, for they dwelt in the open country, and were skilful in the cultivation of corn and beans and making cabins. To these he gave the name of "Open Country." These five nations formed a league like that of the Amphyctions of Greece, and became almost invulnerable. Hiawatha was regarded as the incarnation of wisdom, and was sent to earth by the Great Spirit to teach savages how to live better lives. The story of his life is told by Longfellow, in his *Song of Hiawatha.*

Hichborn, PHILIP, naval constructor; born in Charlestown, Mass., March 4, 1839; graduated at the Boston High School, and became a shipwright apprentice in the Boston navy-yard. After five years' service there he took a two years' course in ship construction, design, and calculation under the direction of the Navy Department. In 1860 he was assigned to duty in the navy-yard at Mare Island, Cal., and in 1862–69 was master shipwright there. In the latter year he was made an assistant naval constructor, with the relative rank of lieutenant. In 1875, after a competitive examination, he was commissioned a naval constructor. He was selected by the Secretary of the Navy for special duty in Europe in 1884, and later

PHILIP HICHBORN.

published the results of his investigations in a work on European dockyards. This work attracted much attention, and for a time foreign powers were greatly exercised over its appearance, as nothing so exhaustive had been published before. On July 13, 1893, he was appointed chief constructor of the navy with the relative rank of commodore, and on Sept. 7, 1897, was reappointed. On his sixtieth birthday, March 4, 1899, through the provisions of the naval personnel bill he became a rear-admiral; and on March 4, 1901, he was retired under the law fixing the age limit of active service. The recognition of his long and faithful service, covering the remarkable increase of the navy, was touchingly embodied in a letter addressed to him by the Secretary of the Navy, Feb. 25, 1901. Rear-Admiral Hichborn was the recipient of numerous distinctions at home and abroad, one of the most prized

being his election as an honorary member of the British Institute of Naval Architects in 1899.

Hickcox, JOHN HOWARD, librarian; born in Albany, N. Y., Aug. 10, 1832; received an academic education; worked in the Congressional Library at Washington, D. C., in 1874–82. His publications include *An Historical Account of American Coinage; History of the Bills of Credit, or Paper Money, issued by New York from 1709 to 1789; Bibliography of the Writings of Dr. Franklin B. Hough;* and *Catalogue of United States Government Publications.*

Hickey, THOMAS, conspirator. In June, 1776, when the British were marching against New York City, a conspiracy was hatched to kill the American generals by blowing up the magazine, or to capture General Washington. About 500 persons were concerned, including two guards of Washington. Hickey, one of the guards, with a dozen others, was discovered, and by the unanimous decision of a court-martial was convicted. He was hanged near Bowery Lane, New York, in the sight of 20,000 people, June 27, 1776.

Hicks, ELIAS, Friends preacher; born in Hempstead, N. Y., March 19, 1748; was a very able preacher among Friends, or Quakers, and was a formally recognized minister at the age of twenty-seven. After preaching many years, he embraced Unitarian views, and boldly promulgated them. This produced a schism in the society, and a separation, the new lights receiving the name of "Hicksites," and the old church of "Orthodox." They have never fused. He preached with eloquence and vigor until a short time before his death, in Jericho, N. Y., Feb. 27, 1830. See FRIENDS, SOCIETY OF.

Hicks, THOMAS HOLLIDAY, statesman; born in Dorchester county, Md., Sept. 2, 1798; was a farmer in early life; was often in the State legislature, and was governor of the commonwealth from 1858 to 1862. He was elected to the United States Senate in 1862, for the unexpired term of a deceased Senator, and re-elected for the term ending in 1867. When the Civil War broke out, Governor Hicks stood firmly for the Union. He declared, in a proclamation after the attack on the Massachusetts regiment in Baltimore

THOMAS HOLLIDAY HICKS.

(April 19, 1861), that all his authority would be exercised in support of the government (see BALTIMORE). By his patriotism and firmness, Maryland was saved from attempting secession from the Union. He died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 13, 1865.

Hieroglyphics. There was no written language in all North America when Europeans came, excepting in the form of pictography, which has a near relationship to the hieroglyphics of the Egyptians. It was used in aid of historic and other traditions, and in illustration of their mythology, which was rich in symbolism, and formed a part of their religious system. They personified their ideas by delineations of natural objects. An excellent illustration is given in the act of To-mo-chi-chi, an aged Creek chief, when he first visited Oglethorpe, on the site of Savannah. He presented a buffalo's skin, ornamented with a picture of an eagle, saying: "The eagle is an emblem of speed, and the buffalo of strength. The English are as swift as the bird, for they fly over vast seas, and, like the buffalo, are so strong nothing can withstand them. The feathers of the bird are soft, and signify love; the buffalo's skin is warm, and signifies protection. Therefore, love and protect our little families."

Similar in purpose are the carvings on the totem poles, especially in Alaska, by which the natives have preserved their family and tribal records and traditions.

In the town of Berkley, Bristol co., Mass., is a stone known as Dighton Rock, which bears an inscription attributed to

the Norsemen, but which has defied the skill of the archæologist to decipher.

The Pictured Rocks on the shore of Lake Superior, not far from Sault Ste. Marie, contrary to popular belief, are not the work of human hands, but the effects of water wearing away the sandstone rocks. They resemble old castles, temples, arches, and other objects when viewed from a short distance.

Higginson, FRANCIS, clergyman; born in England in 1588; was an eloquent Puritan divine, and accepted an invitation to the new Puritan settlement at Salem, to which place he emigrated in the summer of 1629, and where he died Aug. 6, 1630. His son JOHN succeeded, became a teacher, chaplain of the fort at Saybrook, one of the "seven pillars" of the church at Guildford, and pastor of his father's church at Salem in 1660, where he continued until his death, Dec. 9, 1708.

Francis Higginson was among the carefully selected company of pioneers in the founding of the colony of Massachusetts Bay, who landed at Naumkeag (afterwards named Salem), with John Endicott, in 1629. It was late in June when the little company arrived at their destination, where "the corruptions of the English Church were never to be planted," and Higginson served the people in spiritual matters faithfully until his death. With the same company came two excellent brothers, John and Samuel Browne. Both were members of the council, were reputed to be "sincere friends of the plantation," had been favorites of the company in England, and one of them, an experienced lawyer, had been a member of the board of assistants in London. They did not support the new system in religious worship established by the austere Endicott, and they refused to unite with the public assembly. Resting upon their rights under the charter, they gathered a company in which the *Book of Common Prayer* was used in worship. This was a mortal offence. Should the hierarchy of England be allowed to thus intrude the forms of worship of the prelacy in the retreat of the Puritans? Not at all. Regarding the Brownes as spies in the camp, these excellent men, acting innocently in accordance with the dictates of their own consciences, were rudely seized like criminals (after their mode of worship was forbidden as a mutiny, and they presented), and were sent back to England in the returning ships. So was the seed of Episcopacy first planted in Massachusetts, and so was its germ ruthlessly plucked.

Higginson, THOMAS WENTWORTH, author; born in Cambridge, Mass., Dec. 22, 1823; graduated at Harvard College in 1841; became pastor of the First Congregational Church in Newburyport, Mass., in 1847. In 1858 he gave up the ministry for literature. He entered the National army in September, 1862, and was made colonel of the 33d Colored Regiment in

THOMAS WENTWORTH HIGGINSON.

the same year. This regiment comprised the first freed slaves received into the National army. He was wounded at Willtown Bluffs, S. C., in August, 1863, and resigned in the following year. His publications include *Army Life in a Black Regiment; Young Folks' History of the United States; History of Education in Rhode Island; Young Folks' Book of American Explorers; Short Studies of American Authors; Life of Margaret Fuller Ossoli* (in *American Men of Letters* series, 1884); *Larger History of the United States*, etc.

High Commission, COURT OF, an ecclesiastical tribunal created by Queen Elizabeth (1559), by which all spiritual jurisdiction was vested in the crown. It was designed as a check upon Puritan and Roman Catholic Separatists. Originally it had no power to fine or imprison, but under Charles I. and Archbishop Laud it assumed illegal powers, and became an instrument of persecution of the non-conformists of every kind. It was complained of to Parliament, and was abolished in 1641, at the beginning of the Civil War in England.

Higher Law Doctrine. In the debate on the admission of California into the Union as a free State, William H. Seward, on March 11, 1850, said in the course of his speech: "The Constitution regulates our stewardship; the Constitution devotes the domain to union, to justice, to defence, to welfare, and to liberty. But there is a higher law than the Constitution which regulates our authority over the domain and devotes it to the same noble purposes. The territory is a part—no inconsiderable part—of the common heritage of mankind, bestowed upon them by the Creator of the universe. We are His stewards, and must so discharge our trust as to secure in the highest attainable degree their happiness."

Hildreth, RICHARD, historian; born in Deerfield, Mass., June 22, 1807; graduated at Harvard College in 1829; studied and practised law and wrote for newspapers and magazines until 1832, when he began to edit the Boston *Atlas*. In the course of many years Mr. Hildreth wrote several books and pamphlets, chiefly on the subject of slavery, to which system he was opposed. He resided on a plantation in the South in 1834–35; in Washington, D. C., as correspondent of the *Atlas*, in 1837–38, when he resumed his editorial post on that paper; and resided in Demerara, British Guiana, from 1840 to 1843, when he edited, successively, two newspapers there. Mr. Hildreth's principal work was a *History of the United States*, in 6 volumes (1849–56). He was one of the editors of the New York *Tribune* for several years. In 1861 President Lincoln appointed him United States consul at Trieste, but failing health compelled him to resign the post, and he died in Florence, Italy, July 11, 1865.

RICHARD HILDRETH.

Hildreth, SAMUEL PRESCOTT, physician; born in Methuen, Mass., Sept. 30, 1783; graduated in medicine in 1805; began practice in Marietta, O., in 1808. He was the author of *Pioneer History; Lives of the Early Settlers of Ohio; Contributions to the Early History of the Northwest*, etc. He died in Marietta, O., July 24, 1863.

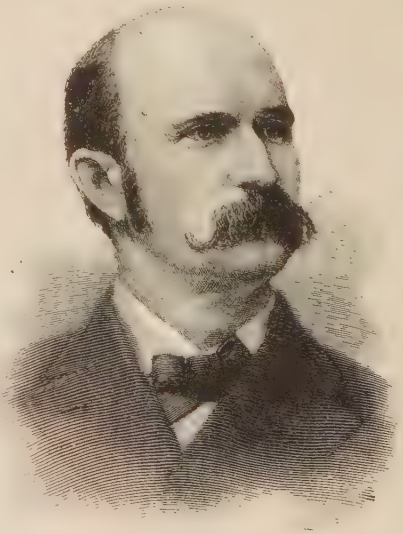
Hill, AMBROSE POWELL, military officer; born in Culpeper county, Va., Nov. 9, 1825; graduated at West Point in 1847; entered the 1st Artillery, and served in the war with Mexico, and against the Seminoles in 1849–50; resigning in 1861, joined the Confederates, and was made colonel of the 13th Virginia Volunteers. He soon rose to major-general in the Confederate army, and was one of its most efficient officers in the various campaigns in 1862 and 1863, in Virginia and

Maryland. He was one of the most efficient officers of Lee's army in the defence of Petersburg and Richmond, in 1864–65. In the final struggle at Petersburg, he was instantly killed by a musket-shot, April 2, 1865.

Hill, BENJAMIN HARVEY, statesman; born in Jasper county, Ga., Sept. 14, 1823; graduated at the University of Georgia in 1844; was admitted to the bar and settled at La Grange, Ga., to practise in 1845. He entered political life in 1851; became conspicuous in the Whig party, and in supporting Millard Fillmore for the Presidency established a reputation as an exceptional orator. In 1859 he was elected State Senator; in 1860 was a Bell and Everett Presidential elector; and in 1861 was a Unionist member of the State secession convention, in which he made a strong argument against the ordinance of secession. Later in the latter year he became a member of the Confederate provisional Congress and a member of the Confederate Senate, in which he served till the close of the war. After the war he opposed the reconstruction acts of Congress; supported Horace Greeley for the Presidency in 1872; was elected to Congress to fill a vacancy in 1875 and for a full term in 1876; and on Jan. 17, 1877, made a speech on the electoral commission bill, which he asserted was "fully constitutional, wise in its provisions, and patriotic in its purpose." While yet serving as a Representative he was elected to the United States Senate, and occupied the seat till his death, in Atlanta, Ga., Aug. 19, 1882. After his death a monument was erected to his memory in Atlanta, consisting of a life-sized statue of white marble. See INGALLS, JOHN JAMES.

Hill, DANIEL HARVEY, military officer; born in York District, S. C., July 12, 1821; graduated at West Point in 1842; entered the artillery; served in the war with Mexico, and was brevetted captain and major; left the army in 1849, and became Professor of Mathematics—first in Washington College, Lexington, Va., and then in Davidson College, North Carolina. In 1859 he was principal of the Military Institute at Charlotte, N. C.; and when the Civil War broke out he joined the Confederates, becoming colonel of the 1st North Carolina Volunteers. He took part in the defence of Richmond in 1862, and was active in the seven days' battle. He soon rose to the rank of major-general. He commanded the Department of the Appomattox, and in February, 1865, was in command at Augusta, Ga. He was a brother-in-law of "Stonewall" Jackson, and a skilful commander. In 1877 he became president of the University of Arkansas, and subsequently of the Georgia Military and Agricultural College. He died in Charlotte, N. C., Sept. 25, 1889.

Hill, DAVID BENNETT, lawyer; born in Havana, N. Y., Aug. 29, 1844; studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1864; was a member of the New York Assembly in 1869–71. He presided over the Democratic State conventions of 1877 and 1881; was mayor of Elmira, N. Y., in 1882; lieutenant-governor of New York in 1882–85, and governor in 1885–91. In the latter year he was elected United States Senator and served till 1897. He was a candidate for the Presidential nomination in the National Democratic Convention of 1892, and prior to the convention of 1896, spent several weeks making a political speaking tour of the principal cities of



DAVID BENNETT HILL.

the South on the invitation of the Democratic leaders in that section. In the convention of 1900 he was offered the nomination for Vice-President, but firmly declined it.

Hill, DAVID JAYNE, author; born in Plainfield, N. J., June 10, 1850; graduated at Bucknell University in 1874; was president there in 1879–88, and of the University of Rochester in 1888–96; became first assistant Secretary of State in 1898, and minister to Switzerland in 1903. His publications include *Life of Washington Irving; Life of William Cullen Bryant; Principles and Fallacies of Socialism; International Justice;* etc.

Hill, ISAAC, journalist; born in Charlestown, Mass., April 6, 1788; removed to Concord, N. H., where he edited the *New Hampshire Patriot;* served in both branches of the State legislature. In 1829 Hill, with DUFF GREEN (*q. v.*), editor of the *United States Telegram,* and Amos Kendall, editor of the *Argus of Western America,* were stigmatized as "Jackson's kitchen cabinet." He was elected United States Senator in 1830, and resigned in 1836 to become governor of New Hampshire. In 1840 he was appointed United States sub-treasurer at Boston. He died in Washington, D. C., March 22, 1851.

Hill, WILLIAM, clergyman; born in Cumberland county, Va., March 3, 1769; graduated at Hampden-Sidney College in 1788; was ordained in the Presbyterian Church in 1790. He was the author of an oration in memory of General Washington, and began a *History of the Presbyterian Church in the United States,* but only the first part was published. He died in Winchester, Va., Nov. 16, 1852.

Hillabee Towns, THE. In 1813 there was an existing jealousy between the west Tennessee troops, under Generals Jackson and Coffee, and the east Tennessee troops, under Generals Cooke and White, both intent upon punishing the Creeks. After the battle of TALLADEGA (*q. v.*), the Hillabee Creeks were disposed to peace, and offered to make terms with Jackson. He cordially responded, and preparations were made for the transaction. Meanwhile Generals Cocke and White, ignorant of this measure, came down upon the Hillabees, and spread destruction in their path. Ockfuskee and Genalga, two deserted villages—one of thirty and the other of ninety houses—were laid in ashes; and on the morning of Nov. 18, the troops appeared before the principal town. The inhabitants were unsuspicious of danger, and made no resistance; yet General White, for the purpose of inspiring terror in the minds of the Creek nation, fell furiously upon the non-resistants, and murdered no less than sixty warriors. Then, with 250 widows and orphans as prisoners in his train, he returned to Fort Armstrong, a stronghold which the east Tennesseeans had built on the Coosa, in the present Cherokee county, Ala. The Hillabees, knowing no other American commander than Jackson, regarded this outrage as most foul perfidy on his part, and thenceforth they carried on the war with malignant fury.

Hilliard d'Auberteuil, MICHEL RENÉ, author; born in Rennes, France, Jan. 31, 1751; was a lawyer in Santo Domingo, and during the Revolutionary War visited the United States. He was the author of *Historical and Political Essays on the Anglo-Americans; History of the Administration of Lord North, from 1770 until 1782, in the War of North America,* etc. He died in Santo Domingo, W. I., in 1785.

Hilliard, FRANCIS, jurist; born in Cambridge, Mass., about 1808; graduated at Harvard College in 1823. His publications include *Digest of Pickering's Reports; American Law of Real Property; American Jurisprudence; Law of New Trials and other Rehearings,* etc. He died in Worcester, Mass., Oct. 9, 1878.

Hillis, GEORGE MORGAN, clergyman; born in Auburn, N. Y., Oct. 10, 1825; graduated at Trinity College in 1847; ordained in the Protestant Episcopal Church in 1851. After being rector in Watertown and Syracuse, N. Y., he was called to St. Mary's Church, Burlington, N. J., in 1870. His publications include *The Transfer of the Church from Colonial Dependence to the Freedom of the Republic; John Talbot, the First Bishop in North America; The Missions of the Church of England in New Jersey,* etc.

Hillis, NEWELL DWIGHT, clergyman;

born in Magnolia, Ia., Sept. 2, 1858; was educated in Iowa College, Lake Forest University, and the McCormick Theological Seminary. He entered the ministry of the Presbyterian Church and in 1887–90 held a pastorate in Peoria, and in 1890–94 in Evanston, Ill. In the latter year he was called to the Central Presbyterian Church in Chicago to succeed Prof. David Swing, and in January, 1899, he became pastor of the Plymouth Congregational Church in Brooklyn, succeeding Rev. Lyman Abbott, D.D., who had succeeded Henry Ward Beecher. On March 29, 1900, he withdrew from the Presbyterian denomination. He is author of *The Investment of Influence; A Man's Value to Society; How the Inner Light Failed;* and *Foretokens of Immortality.*

Hillsborough, Wills Hill, Earl of, statesman; born in Fairford, Gloucestershire, England, May 30, 1718; was secretary of state for the colonies in 1768–72, and principal secretary of state for the American colonies during the Revolutionary War. He died Oct. 7, 1793.

William Samuel Johnson, a strict Churchman and able jurist, was agent for the colony of Connecticut in England. He was very desirous to avoid a rupture between the colonies and the mother-country, but he was faithful to the interests and rights of his colony. He called on the Earl of Hillsborough, to congratulate him on his elevation to the newly created office of secretary of state for the colonies, and told the earl that he might count on his friendship and affection, for Connecticut was a "loyal colony." Hillsborough, rather curtly, complained that Connecticut had very little correspondence with the home government, and that repeated requests for copies of the laws of the colony had been disregarded. "The colony has several times sent over a copy of the printed law-book," answered Johnson. "It is the duty of your colony," said the earl, "to transmit from time to time not only the laws that pass, but all the minutes of the proceedings of the council and Assembly, that we may know what you are about, and rectify whatever is amiss." "If your lordship means," answered Johnson, "to have the laws of our colony transmitted for the inspection of the ministry, as such, and for the purpose of approbation or disapprobation by his Majesty in council, it is what the colony has never done, and, I am persuaded, will never submit to. By the charter which King Charles II. granted, the colony was invested with a power of legislation not subject to revision." "There are such things as extravagant grants, which are, therefore, void," said Hillsborough. "You will admit there are many things which the King cannot grant, as the inseparable incidents of the crown." Johnson answered: "Nobody has ever reckoned the power of legislation among the inseparable incidents of the crown;" and he presented logical arguments in favor of the colony. For two hours they discussed the subject of the rights of Connecticut, and Hillsborough showed that there was a disposition on the part of the ministry to declare the charter of Connecticut, as well as those of the other colonies, void; not because of any pretence that the charter had been violated, but because the people, by the enjoyment of it, were too free. "You are in danger of being too much a separate, independent state," said Hillsborough, "and of having too little subordination to this country."

When the Massachusetts circular letter (see Massachusetts) reached the ministers, they were highly offended, and Lord Hillsborough instructed the governor of Massachusetts to require the Assembly to rescind that circular; and, in case of refusal, to dissolve them. Instructions were also sent to all the other colonial governors to take measures to prevent the respective Assemblies from paying any attention to the circular. This excited hot indignation in the Assemblies, and among the people. It was regarded as a direct attempt to abridge or absolutely control public discussion in the colonies. They resented the act in strong but decorous language; and that order was more potential in crystallizing the colonies into a permanent union than any event in their past history. The colonial Assemblies everywhere took decided action. The Massachusetts Assembly refused to rescind. New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Connecticut warmly commended the action of Massachusetts. The New York Assembly adopt-

ed the circular, and declared the right of the colonies to correspond, through their representatives, on subjects of public importance. The legislature of Pennsylvania treated the order with decorous scorn, and a meeting of the people urged, by resolution, a cordial union of all the colonies in resistance to oppression. The Assembly of Delaware, also, took bold ground in the matter. When Governor Sharpe made an arrogant demand in the matter of the Assembly of Maryland, in laying the obnoxious order before them, that body assured him that they should not treat a letter "so replete with just principles of liberty" with indifference, and added, "We shall not be intimidated by a few sounding expressions from doing what we think is right;" and they thanked the Massachusetts Assembly. Virginia not only approved the circular, but sent one of her own to the colonial Assemblies, inviting their concurrence with it. North Carolina rejected the order and approved the circular. A committee of the South Carolina legislature declared, by resolutions, that the circulars of both Massachusetts and Virginia were replete with duty to the King, respect for Parliament, attachment to Great Britain, and "founded upon undeniable constitutional principles." The resolutions were adopted by the Assembly, and the royal governor dissolved them. Then the citizens of Charleston paraded the streets by torch-light, garlanded an effigy of the goddess of liberty with flowers and evergreens, and crowned it with laurel and palmetto leaves. They also burned the seventeen Massachusetts "rescinders" in effigy. The Georgia Assembly approved the circular, and were dissolved by Governor Wright.

On Dec. 6, 1768, the secretary for the colonies met the several colonial agents in a body, to communicate to them the result of a cabinet council. He said: "The administration will enforce the authority of the legislature of Great Britain over the colonies in the most effectual manner, but with moderation and lenity. All the petitions we have received are very offensive, for they contain a denial of the authority of Parliament." He disapproved of some of the late acts of a commercial nature, and said the duty act would have been repealed had the Americans opposed it on the ground of its inexpediency. "But," he said, "the principle you proceed upon extends to all laws; and we cannot, therefore, think of repealing it, at least this session of Parliament, or until the colonies shall have dropped the point of right. Nor can the conduct of the people of Boston pass without censure." Against this actively patriotic town ministerial wrath was chiefly directed. Hillsborough, in the House of Lords, expressed a hope that no one would move or think of a repeal of the late acts while the present attitude of the Americans lasted. "The notion of the Americans," he said, "is a polytheism in politics—absurd, fatal to the constitution, and never to be admitted." He truly said it was not the amount of revenue to be obtained by taxation from the colonies (about $50,000 a year) that they opposed, but the principle upon which the tax was levied. He closed his speech by offering a series of resolutions for coercing the colonies into submission. Choiseul, watching the course of British legislation, said: "Under the semblance of rigor, it covers pusillanimity and fear. If those who are threatened with a trial for high-treason are not alarmed, the lesson and discouragement will affect nobody but the British ministers."

Hilton Head, Capture of. See Port Royal Expedition.

Hindman, Thomas Carmichael, military officer; born in Tennessee, in November, 1818; served in the war with Mexico; was member of Congress from 1859 to 1861, and of the Charleston convention in 1860. He became a brigadier-general in the Confederate army, and was the chief leader of Confederate troops in Arkansas. After the battle of Shiloh (*q. v.*), in which he participated, he was made a major-general. He was in command of a division in Polk's corps at Chickamauga. After the fall of the Confederacy, he went to Mexico, and returned to Helena in the spring of 1867, where he was murdered by one of his former soldiers, Sept. 27, 1868.

Hindman, Fort, a Confederate fortification at Arkansas Post, Ark., on the Arkansas River, 73 miles southeast of Little Rock. In the winter of 1862–63,

General Sherman and Commodore Porter planned an attack upon the fort. General McClernand, who had arrived and taken the chief command, accompanied the expedition from near Vicksburg. The troops landed, about 25,000 strong, 3 miles below the fort, on Jan. 9, 1863, and were led by Generals McClernand, Sherman, Morgan, Steele, Stewart, A. J. Smith, and Osterhaus. Porter had a strong flotilla of

PLAN OF THE ATTACK ON FORT HINDMAN.

armored and unarmored gunboats. The latter, moving on, shelled the Confederates out of their rifle-pits; and on the 11th the army moved against Fort Hindman. When the gunboats opened fire upon it, Morgan's artillery covered the advance. After a fight for about two hours, the Confederates raised a white flag, while troops, which had stormed the works, were swarming over them. The Nationals lost 977 men, of whom 129 were killed. The spoils were about 5,000 prisoners, seven cannon, 3,000 small-arms, and a large quantity of stores. The fort was blown up, and property which could not be carried away was destroyed.

Hinkston's Fork, a locality on the Licking River, where, in 1782, a battle was fought between the Wyandotte Indians and the whites, in which the Indians were victorious.

Hinman, ELISHA, naval officer; born in Stonington, Conn., March 9, 1734; went to sea at the age of fourteen years, and was a captain at nineteen, sailing to Europe and the Indies. He entered the navy of the Revolution, under Hopkins, in 1776, and was one of the first captains appointed by Congress. He was a very active officer. Captured when in command of the *Alfred,* thirty-two guns, he was taken to England, whence he escaped to France, and cruised successfully after his return, in 1779–80. President Adams offered him the command of the *Constitution* in 1798, but on account of his age he declined. From that time until 1802 he was engaged in the revenue service. He died in Stonington, Aug. 29, 1807.

Hinsdale, BURKE AARON, educator; born in Wadsworth, O., March 31, 1837; became Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching at the University of Michigan in 1888. His publications include *Schools and Studies; President Garfield and Education; The Old Northwest; The American Government; How to Study and Teach History,* etc. He also edited the works of President Garfield. He died in Ann Arbor, Mich., Nov. 29, 1900.

Hinton, JOHN HOWARD, author; born in Oxford, England, March 23, 1791; became a Baptist minister, and, after serving a church in Reading, accepted a charge in London. He was the author of *History and Topography of the United States* (with his brother, Isaac Taylor Hinton). He died in Bristol, England, Dec. 11, 1873.

Hinton, RICHARD JOSIAH, author; born in London, England, Nov. 25, 1830; came to the United States in 1851; settled in Kansas in 1856; served in the National army throughout the Civil War, attaining the rank of colonel. He was the author of *Life of Abraham Lincoln; Life of William H. Seward; Handbook of Arizona; Life of Gen. P. H. Sheridan; John Brown; The Making of the New West;* etc. He died in London, England, Dec. 20, 1901.

History, ESSAY ON. See EMERSON, RALPH WALDO.

Hitchcock, ETHAN ALLEN, diplomatist; born in Mobile, Ala., June 12, 1835; was educated in New Haven, Conn.; removed to St. Louis, Mo., in 1851; engaged in business in that city, and acquired a fortune; was United States minister to Russia in 1897–98, and in the latter year became ambassador. He was recalled from St. Petersburg to become Secretary of

the Interior in January, 1899, and was reappointed in March, 1901.

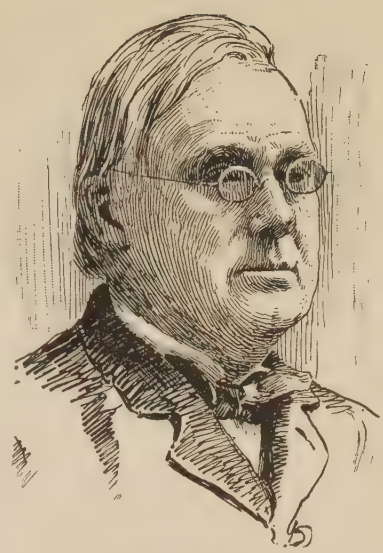
Hitchcock, JAMES RIPLEY WELLMAN, author; born in Fitchburg, Mass., July 3, 1857; graduated at Harvard College in 1877, and later engaged in literary work. His publications include *The Western Art Movement; Etching in America; Recent American Etchings; Notable American Etchings; Representative American Etchings;* etc.

Hittell, JOHN SHERZER, author; born in Jonestown, Pa., Dec. 25, 1825; graduated at Miami University in 1843; settled in California in 1849, and was a journalist in San Francisco for twenty-five years. His publications include *History of San Francisco; The Resources of California;* etc. He died in San Francisco, Cal., March 8, 1901.

Hittell, THEODORE HENRY, author; born in Marietta, Pa., April 5, 1830; brother of JOHN SHERZER HITTELL; graduated at Yale College in 1849; became a lawyer in 1852; and removed to California in 1855. His publications include *History of California; General Laws of California; Hittell's Codes and Statutes of California,* etc.

Hoar, EBENEZER ROCKWOOD, jurist; born in Concord, Mass., Feb. 21, 1816; son of SAMUEL HOAR, and brother of GEORGE F. HOAR; graduated at Harvard in 1835; admitted to the bar in 1840, and practised in Concord and Boston. He was a judge of the Court of Common Pleas in 1849–55; of the State Supreme Court in 1859–69; Attorney-General of the United States in 1869–70; member of the high joint commission which framed the treaty of Washington in 1871; and a representative in Congress in 1873–75. He died in Concord, Mass., Jan. 31, 1895.

Hoar, GEORGE FRISBIE, legislator; born in Concord, Mass., Aug. 29, 1826; graduated at Harvard in 1846; studied law, and practised in Worcester, Mass. He was a member of the Massachusetts House of Representatives in 1852, and of the Senate in 1857; city attorney in 1860; member of Congress in 1869–77; and became United States Senator in the latter year. He was a delegate to the National Republican Conventions of 1876, 1880, and 1884; and one of the managers



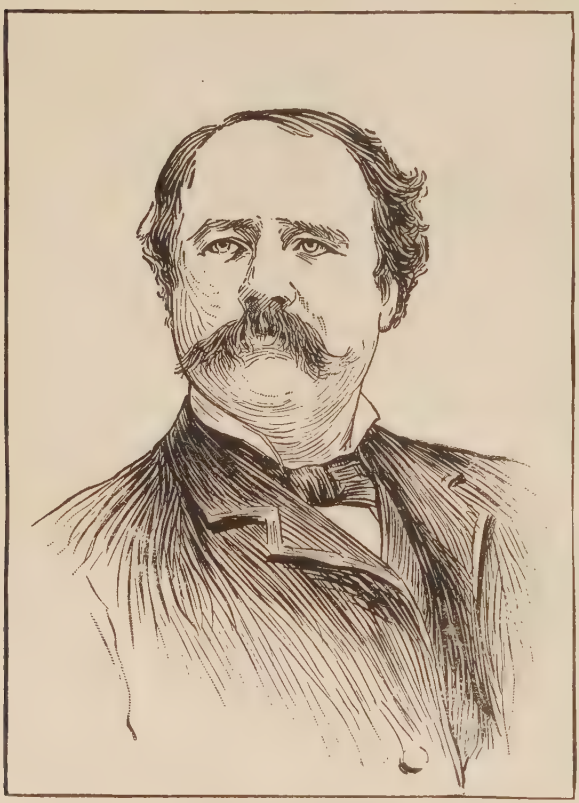
GEORGE FRISBIE HOAR.

of the House of Representatives in the Belknap impeachment case in 1876. He died in Worcester, Mass., Sept. 30, 1904.

Hoar, SAMUEL, lawyer; born in Lincoln, Mass., May 18, 1788; graduated at Harvard College in 1802; admitted to the bar in 1805, and began practice in Concord. He was a delegate to the State Constitutional Convention in 1820; a member of the State Senate in 1825 and 1833; and a Whig representative in Congress in 1835–37. He was sent by the Massachusetts legislature to South Carolina in 1844 to test the constitutionality of the acts of that State, authorizing the imprisonment of free colored people who should enter it, but his appearance in Charleston caused much excitement, and he was forced to leave the city, Dec. 5, 1844. He died in Concord, Mass., Nov. 2, 1856.

Hobart, GARRET AUGUSTUS, lawyer; born in Long Branch, N. J., June 3, 1844; was graduated at Rutgers College in 1863; admitted to the bar in 1866; and began practice in Paterson, N. J. In 1872 he was elected to the State Assembly; in 1873 was re-elected and chosen speaker; and in 1874 declined a renomination to the Assembly and was elected to the Senate, to which he was re-elected in 1879.

In 1881 and 1882 he was president of the Senate. In 1896 he was elected Vice-President of the United States on the ticket with Mr. McKinley, and served till his death, in Paterson, N. J., Nov. 2, 1899. He was connected with a large number of financial concerns; was a man of exceptional personal magnetism, and ably supported President McKinley in the trying days of 1898.



GARRET AUGUSTUS HOBART.

Hobkirk's Hill, Battle of. When (in 1781) Greene heard of the retreat of Cornwallis, he pursued him as far as the Deep River, when he turned back and moved southward towards Camden to strike a blow for the recovery of South Carolina. Lord Rawdon was in command at Camden. On April 19 Greene encamped at Hobkirk's Hill, about a mile from Rawdon's intrenchments, where, six days afterwards, he was surprised by the British and defeated, after a sharp battle of several hours. Greene's force was too weak to assail Rawdon's intrenchments with any prospect of success, and he encamped on a wooded eminence and awaited reinforcements under Sumter. On the night of the 24th a drummer deserted to the British and informed Rawdon of Greene's weakness and his expectation of strength. As his provisions were almost exhausted, Rawdon saw no chance for success in battle unless he should strike immediately, so he prepared to fall upon Greene early on the morning of the 25th. Unsuspicious of danger, Greene's army was unprepared for an attack. The cavalry horses were unsaddled, some of the soldiers were washing their clothes, and Greene and his staff were at a spring on a slope of Hobkirk's Hill taking breakfast. Rawdon had gained the left flank of the Americans by marching stealthily along the margin of a swamp. Partially surprised, Greene quickly formed his army in battle-line. His cavalry were soon mounted. The Virginia brigade, under General Huger, with Lieutenant-Colonels Campbell and Hawes, formed the right; the Maryland brigade, with Delaware troops under Kirkwood, led by Col. Otho H. Williams, with Colonel Gunby and Lieutenant-Colonels Ford and Howe, occupied the left; and the artillery, under Colonel Harrison, were in the centre; North Carolina militia were held in reserve; and in this position Greene was prepared to receive the oncoming Rawdon, whose forces ascended the slope with a narrow front. The regiments of Ford and Campbell endeavored to turn their flank, while Gunby's

Marylanders assailed the front with bayonets without firing. The battle was thus opened with great vigor, Greene commanding the Virginians in person.

At the moment when the Americans felt sure of victory, Captain Beatty, commanding a company of Gunby's veterans, was killed, and his followers gave way. An unfortunate order was given for the whole regiment to retire, when the British broke through the American centre, pushed up to the brow of the hill, and forced Greene to retreat. Meanwhile Washington had fallen on the British rear and captured about 200 soldiers, whose officers he quickly paroled, and in the retreat carried away fifty of the captives. The Americans were chased a short distance, when Washington turned upon the pursuers, made a gallant charge, and checked them. By this movement Greene was enabled to save all his artillery and baggage. He rallied his men, crossed the Wateree above Camden, and rested in a strong position before moving on Fort Ninety-six. The loss of each army in the battle was about the same—less than 270. This defeat disconcerted Greene at first, but his genius triumphed.

Hoboken, Massacre at. The river Indians, or those dwelling on the borders of the Hudson, were tributary to the powerful Mohawks. In the midwinter of 1643, a large party of the latter came down to collect by force of arms tribute which had not been paid. The river Indians, 500 in number, fled before the invaders, and took refuge, with their wives and children, among the Hackensacks at Hoboken, opposite Manhattan Island, where they asked the protection of the Dutch. At the same time many of the tribe in lower Westchester fled to Manhattan and took refuge with the Hollanders. The humane De Vries, who had a settlement on Staten Island, proposed to Governor Kieft to make this an occasion for establishing a permanent peace with the Indians, whose anger his cruelties had fearfully aroused. But the "man of blood" refused; and it was made the occasion of spilling more innocent blood. On a cold night in February, 1643, the fugitives at Hoboken, and those on Manhattan, slumbering in fancied security, were attacked by order of Kieft, without the shadow of an excuse, by armed Hollanders sent by the governor to murder them. Eighty of these Dutchmen were sent across the Hudson stealthily, among floating ice, and fell suddenly upon the stricken families at Hoboken.

VIEW OF THE SPRING, HOBKIRK'S HILL.

They spared neither age nor sex. "Warrior and squaw, sachem and child, mother and babe, were alike massacred," says Brodhead. "Daybreak scarcely ended the furious slaughter. Mangled victims, seeking safety in the thickets, were driven into the river; and parents, rushing to save their children, whom the soldiers had thrown into the stream, were driven back into the water, and drowned before the eyes of their unrelenting murderers." About 100 of the dusky people perished there, and forty of those on Manhattan. The river and the surrounding country were lighted with the blaze of burning wigwams; and by that horrid illumination De Vries witnessed the butchery from the ramparts of Fort Amsterdam. He told the cowardly governor, who remained within the walls of the fortress, that he had begun the ruin of the colony. The governor sneered at the clemency of De Vries; and when the soldiers returned to the fort the next morning, with thirty prisoners and heads of several of the slain Indians of both sexes, he shook their bloody hands with delight, praised them for their bravery, and made each of them a present. Then De Vries uttered his prophecy. See KIEFT, WILLIAM.

Hobson, EDWARD HENRY, military officer; born in Greenburg, Ky., July 11, 1825; received a common-school education; enlisted in the Kentucky Volunteers in 1846, for the war with Mexico, and was mustered out of service in June, 1847. In 1861 he organized and was commissioned colonel of the 13th Kentucky Volunteers; served at Camp Hobson till February, 1862; commanded his regiment at the battle of Shiloh with such skill that he was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers by President Lincoln. He took part in the siege of Corinth; commanded a brigade at Perrysville; and was ordered to Mumfordsville, Ky., to protect the lines of communication and to discipline new troops. Placed in command of the Southern Division of Kentucky, he was ordered to Marrowbone, Ky., to watch the movements of Gen. John Morgan. He pursued Morgan through Kentucky and Indiana, and attacked him in Ohio. He was mustered out of the service in September, 1865. General Hobson was a vice-president of the National Republican Convention in 1880. He died in Cleveland, O., Sept. 14, 1901.

Hobson, RICHMOND PEARSON, naval constructor; born in Greensboro, Ala., Aug. 17, 1870; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1889; and then took a post-graduate course in the École d'Application du Génie Maritime, Paris. Returning to the United States, he served in the Bureau of Construction and Repairs of the Navy Department in 1894–95. Later he suggested a post-graduate course for officers intending to become naval constructors, and was appointed to

RICHMOND PEARSON HOBSON.

plan such a course, and conducted it in 1897–98. In the latter year he went to sea with the North Atlantic squadron as constructor. When the war with Spain broke out he was promoted lieutenant, and served on the flag-ship *New York* on blockade duty, in the bombardment of Matanzas, Cuba, and in the naval expedition against San Juan, Porto Rico. The action, however, which made his name a synonym for gallantry occurred at the entrance of the harbor of Santiago, Cuba, after Admiral Cervera's fleet was positively known to be in that harbor. Taking seven men with him, he piloted the collier *Merrimac* to the narrow entrance of the harbor, and sank her across its

mouth to prevent the fleet from passing out. He and his party leaped overboard; were picked up by the Spaniards; and held prisoners for a few weeks, receiving kind treatment by order of Admiral Cervera. After the destruction of Cervera's fleet he was ordered to Manila to take charge of the raising and repairing of the Spanish vessels sunk by Admiral Dewey. He returned to the United States in 1901. He is the author of *The Disappearing Gun Afloat; The Sinking of the Merrimac,* etc.

Hodge, CHARLES, theologian; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 28, 1797; graduated at Princeton College in 1815, and at the Princeton Theological Seminary in 1819; became an instructor there in 1820, and Professor of Oriental and Biblical Literature in 1822. He studied in Europe in the universities of Paris, Halle, and Berlin in 1826–28, and on his return resumed his professorship. He was given the chair of Didactic and Exegetical Theology in 1840, to which Polemical Theology was added in 1852. He founded the *Biblical Repertory* in 1825; changed its name in 1829 to *Biblical Repertory and Princeton Review;* and was its editor till 1871, when it was changed to *Presbyterian Quarterly and Princeton Review.* His writings include a large number of essays and reviews, and *Constitutional History of the Presbyterian Church in the United States.* He died in Princeton, N. J., June 19, 1878.

Hoe, RICHARD MARCH, manufacturer; born in New York City, Sept. 12, 1812; son of Robert Hoe, an ingenious mechanic, born in Leicestershire, England, in 1784; and died in Westchester county, N. Y., Jan. 4, 1833. He was a builder and arrived in New York in 1803, when he relinquished his trade and began the manufacture of printing-materials and of a hand-press invented by his brother-in-law, Peter Smith. Making great improvements in printing-presses, his business increased, but, his health failing, in 1832 his eldest son, Richard, took charge of the business, with two partners. Meanwhile Richard had made material improvements in the manufacture of saws, and the production of these implements became an important part of their business. In 1837 Richard went to England to obtain a patent for an improved method of grinding saws. His observation of printing-presses in use there enabled him to make very great improvements in printing-machines. He patented his "lightning press," so called

RICHARD MARCH HOE.

because of the rapidity of its motions, in 1847. For many years Richard carried on the manufacture of printing, hydraulic, and other presses, with his two brothers, Robert and Peter, the senior partner adding from time to time, by his inventive genius, great improvements, especially in the construction of power-presses, for rapid and excellent printing. Richard M. Hoe died suddenly in Florence, Italy, June 7, 1886.

Hoffman, CHARLES FENNO, author; born in New York City in 1806; was educated at Columbia College; admitted to the bar in 1827. He established the *Knickerbocker Magazine* in 1833; became editor of the *American Monthly Magazine;* and in 1846 editor of the *Literary World.* He died in Harrisburg, Pa., June 7, 1884.

Hoffman, FREDERICK L., author; born in Varel, North Germany, May 2, 1865; is a member of numerous foreign and American statistical and other organizations, and, besides contributing to magazines and technical periodicals, is author of *Race, Traits, and Tendencies of the American Negro; On the Sanitary Condition of the Trinity Tenements,* etc.

Hoffman, MURRAY, jurist; born in New York City, Sept. 29, 1791; graduated at Columbia College in 1809; was assistant vice-chancellor in 1839–43; and judge of the Superior Court of New York in 1853–

61. His publications include *Office and Duties of Masters in Chancery; Treatise on the Practice of the Court of Chancery; Treatise on the Corporation of New York as Owners of Property, and Compilation of the Laws relating to the City of New York;* and *Treatise on the Law of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States.* He died in Flushing, L. I., May 7, 1878.

Hoffmann, JOHN THOMPSON, governor; born in Sing Sing, N. Y., Jan. 10, 1828; mayor of New York, 1865–68; governor, 1869–72. He died in Germany, March 24, 1888.

Holbrook, JAMES, journalist; born in 1812; was self-educated and learned the printer's trade. He was editor of the Norwich *Aurora* for several years; established the *Patriot and Eagle* in 1839, and *The United States Mail* in 1859, the latter of which he edited till his death; and was also special agent of the Post-Office Department from 1845 till his death. He was author of *Ten Years Among the Mail-Bags.* He died in Brooklyn, Conn., April 28, 1864.

Holcombe, HENRY, clergyman; born in Prince Edward county, Va., Sept. 22, 1762; served in the Revolutionary War as captain. After the war he began to preach, and in 1785 was ordained pastor of a Baptist church in South Carolina; was a delegate to the convention that ratified the Constitution of the United States; held pastorates in South Carolina in 1791–99, when he was called to Savannah, Ga. He organized the Savannah Female Seminary, and aided in the establishment of Mount Enon Academy in 1804, and a missionary society in 1806. He was pastor of the First Baptist Church in Philadelphia, Pa., from 1812 till his death; and published *Funeral Discourse on the Death of Washington,* and *Lectures on Primitive Theology.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., May 22, 1826.

Hole-in-the-Day, a chief of the Chippewa Indians; born in Minnesota, about 1827; was very intelligent and learned considerable about civil government. He believed in peace and understood the power of the whites. After marrying an Irishwoman he accumulated a fortune of about $2,000,000, being thus among the richest men in Minnesota. In 1862, during the Indian war in his native State, it was his power which kept the Chippewas from joining the Sioux in their attacks on the whites. He was assassinated by Indians in Crow Wing, Minn., June 29, 1868.

Holidays, LEGAL. The United States has no national holiday, not even the Fourth of July. Congress has at various times appointed special holidays. In the second session of the Fifty-third Congress it passed an act making Labor Day a public holiday in the District of Columbia, and it has recognized the existence of certain days as holidays, for commercial purposes, but, with the exception named, there is no general statute on the subject. The proclamation of the President designating a day of Thanksgiving only makes it a legal holiday in those States which provide by law for it.

The following is a list of the legal holidays in the various States and Territories:

Alabama.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, Mardi-Gras, Good Friday, April 26, July 4, first Monday in September, Dec. 25.

Arizona.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, Arbor Day, May 30, July 4, Dec. 25, any day of Thanksgiving or general election.

California.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, May 30, July 4, Sept. 9, first Monday in October, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

Colorado.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, Arbor Day, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

Connecticut.—Jan. 1, Feb. 12 and 22, Fast Day, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25.

Delaware.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25.

District of Columbia.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, March 4, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25.

Florida.—Jan. 1 and 19, Feb. 22, Arbor Day, April 26, June 3, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

Georgia.—Jan. 1 and 19, Feb. 22, April 26, June 3, July 4, first Monday in September, any Thanksgiving Day, first Friday in December, Dec. 25.

Idaho.—Same as Arizona. Also Friday after May 1. Omitting May 30.

Illinois.—Jan. 1, Feb. 12 and 22, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, election day.

Indiana.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, public fast, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

Iowa.—Jan. 1, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

Kansas.—Jan. 1, Arbor Day, May 30, public fast, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

Kentucky.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, May 30, July 4, public fast, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

Louisiana.—Jan. 1 and 8, Feb. 22, Mardi-Gras in New Orleans, Good-Friday, April 6, July 4, All Saints' Day, Dec. 25, general election.

Maine.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, May 30, public fast, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25.

Maryland.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, Good-Friday, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election, every Saturday afternoon.

Massachusetts.—Feb. 22, April 19, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25.

Michigan.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, fasting and Thanksgiving days, Dec. 25.

Minnesota.—Jan. 1, Feb. 12 and 22, Good-Friday, Arbor Day, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

Mississippi.—July 4, Dec. 25.

Missouri.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

Montana.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, third Tuesday in April, Arbor Day, May 30, public fast, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

Nebraska.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, April 22, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, public fast, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25.

Nevada.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, May 30, July 4, Oct. 31, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

New Hampshire.—Feb. 22, Fast Day, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

New Jersey.—Jan. 1, Feb. 12 and 22, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving and Fast Day, Dec. 25, every Saturday afternoon, general election. Notes and drafts payable on secular or business day next succeeding each holiday.

New Mexico.—Jan. 1, July 4, Dec. 25, and all days for fasting and thanksgiving. Notes due on holidays are payable on the next business day thereafter.

New York.—Jan. 1, Feb. 12 and 22, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Fast Day, Dec. 25, general election, every Saturday afternoon.

North Carolina.—Jan. 1 and 19, Feb. 22, May 10 and 20, July 4, Labor Day, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election. Notes and drafts payable on secular or business day next succeeding each holiday.

North and South Dakota.—Jan. 1, Feb. 12 and 22, Arbor Day, May 30, July 4, Thanksgiving, public fast, Dec. 25, general election.

Ohio.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

Oregon.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, May 30, first Saturday in June, July 4, first Monday in September, public fast, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25.

Pennsylvania.—Jan. 1, Feb. 12 and 22, Good-Friday, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election, every Saturday afternoon.

Rhode Island.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, Arbor Day, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, State election, general election.

South Carolina.—Jan. 1 and 19, Feb. 22, May 10, July 4, first Monday in September, national Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

Tennessee.—Jan. 1, Good-Friday, second Friday in May, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

Texas.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, March 2, April 21, July 4, first Monday in September, Dec. 25, days of fasting and thanksgiving, election day.

Utah.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, April 15, May 30, July 4 and 24, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving and Fast days, Dec. 25.

Vermont.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, May 30, July 4, Aug. 16, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25.

Virginia.—Jan. 1 and 19, Feb. 22, Fast

Day, June 3, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25.

Washington.—Jan. 1, Feb. 12 and 22, Decoration Day, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

West Virginia.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, July 4, Dec. 25, any day of national thanksgiving, general election.

Wisconsin.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, Arbor Day, May 30, July 4, first Monday in September, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

Wyoming.—Jan. 1, Feb. 22, Arbor Day, May 30, July 4, Thanksgiving, Dec. 25, general election.

Holland, JOSIAH GILBERT, author; born in Belchertown, Mass., July 24, 1819; graduated at the Berkshire Medical College in 1844; engaged in practice in Springfield, Mass., till 1847; then became a teacher in Richmond, Va., and in a few months was called to the superintendency of the public schools in Vicksburg, Miss. A year later he returned to Springfield, and was made associate editor of the *Republican,* and continued as such till 1866. In 1870 he became editor and part owner of *Scribner's Monthly.* He made his advent as a book-maker in 1855, by reprinting his *History of Western Massachusetts,* which had appeared as contributions to the *Republican.* Later he published *The Bay Path: a Colonial Tale; Timothy Titcomb's Letters to Young People, Married and Single,* which met with much success; *Bitter Sweet, a Poem in Dramatic Form,* which was even more popular than *Titcomb's Letters; Life of Abraham Lincoln; Kathrina: Her Life and Mine in a Poem; Lessons in Life; The Story of Sevenoaks; Nicholas Minturn,* etc. He died in New York City, Oct. 12, 1881.

The following is Dr. Holland's essay on *American Public Education:*

A venerable gentleman who once occupied a prominent position in a leading New England college, was remarking recently upon the difficulty which he experienced in obtaining servants who would attend to their duties. He had just dismissed a girl of sixteen, who was so much "above her business" as to be intolerable. The girl's father, who was an Englishman, called upon him for an explanation. The employer told his story, every word of which the father received without question, and then remarked, with considerable vehemence: "It is all owing to those cursed public schools." The father retired, and the old professor sat down and thought about it; and the result of his thinking did not differ materially from that of the father. It was not, of course, that there was anything in the studies pursued which had tended to unfit the girl for her duties. It was very possible, indeed, for the girl to have been a better servant in consequence of her intelligence. There was nothing in English grammar or the multiplication table to produce insubordination and discontent. There was nothing in the whole case that tended to condemn the public schools, as such; but it was the spirit inculcated by the teachers of public schools which had spoiled this girl for her place, and which has spoiled, and is still spoiling, thousands of others.

Let us look for a moment into the influence of such a motto as the following, written over a school-house door—always before the eyes of the pupils, and always alluded to by school committees and visitors who are invited to "make a few remarks":

"Nothing is impossible to him who wills."

This abominable lie is placed before a room full of children and youth, of widely varying capacities, and great diversity of circumstances. They are called upon to look at it, and believe in it. Suppose a girl of humble mental abilities and humble circumstances looks at this motto, and says: "I 'will' be a lady. I 'will' be independent. I 'will' be subject to no man's or woman's bidding." Under these circumstances, the girl's father, who is poor, removes her from school, and tells her that she must earn her living. Now, I ask what kind of spirit she can carry into her service, except that of surly and impudent discontent? She has been associated in school, perhaps, with girls whom she is to serve in the family she enters. Has she not been made unfit for her place by the influences of the public school? Have not her comfort and her happiness been spoiled by those influences? Is her reluctant service of any value to those who pay her the wages of her labor?

It is safe, at least, to make the proposition that public schools are a curse to all the youth whom they unfit for their proper places in the world. It is the favorite theory of teachers that every man can make himself anything that he really chooses to make. They resort to this theory to rouse the ambition of their more sluggish pupils, and thus get more study out of them. I have known entire schools instructed to aim at the highest places in society, and the most exalted offices of life. I have known enthusiastic old fools who have made it their principal business to go from school to school, and talk such stuff to the pupils as would tend to unfit every one of humbler circumstances and slender possibilities for the life that lay before them. The fact is persistently ignored, in many of these schools, established emphatically for the education of the people, that the majority of the places in this world are subordinate and low places. Every boy and girl is taught to "be something" in the world, which would be very well if being "something" were being what God intended they should be; but when being "something" involves the transformation of what God intended should be a respectable shoemaker into a very indifferent and a very slow minister of the Gospel, the harmful and even the ridiculous character of the instruction becomes apparent.

There are two classes of evil results attending the inculcation of these favorite doctrines of the school-teachers—first, the unfitting of men and women for humbler places; and, second, the impulsion of men of feeble powers into high places, for the duties of which they have neither natural nor acquired fitness. There are no longer any American girls who go out to service in families. They went into mills from the chamber and the kitchen, but now they have left the mills, and their places are filled by Scotch and Irish girls. Why is this? Is it because that among the American girls there are none of poverty, and of humble powers? Is it because they are not wanted? Or is it because they have become unfitted for such services as these, and feel above them? Is it not because they have become possessed of notions that would render them uncomfortable in family service, and render any family they might serve uncomfortable? An American servant, who goodnaturedly accepts her condition, and knows and loves her place, who is willing to acknowledge that she has a mistress, and who enters into her department of the family life as a harmonious and happy member, may exist, but I do not know her. People have ceased inquiring for American servants. They would like them, generally, because they are intelligent and Protestant, but they cannot get them because they are unwilling to accept service, and the obligations and conditions it imposes. Where all the American girls are, I do not know. I can remember the time when thrifty farmers, mechanics, and tradesmen took wives from the kitchens of gentlemen where they were employed—good, intelligent, self-respecting women they were, too—who became modest mistresses of thrifty families afterwards; but that is all done with now. Under the present mode of education, nobody is fitted for a low place, and everybody is taught to look for a high one.

If we go into a school exhibition, our ears are deafened by declamations addressed to ambition. The boys have sought out from literature every stirring appeal to effort, and every extravagant promise of reward. The compositions of the girls are of the same general tone. We hear of "infinite yearnings" from the lips of girls who do not know enough to make a pudding, and of being polished "after the similitude of a palace" from those who do not comprehend the commonest duties of life. Everything is on the high-pressure principle. The boys, all of them, have the general idea that everything that is necessary to become great men is to try for it, and each one supposes it possible for him to become governor of the State, or President of the Union. The idea of being educated to fill a humble office in life is hardly thought of, and every bumpkin who has a memory sufficient for the words repeats the stanza:

> "Lives of great men all remind us
> We can make our lives sublime,
> And departing, leave behind us
> Footprints on the sand of time."

There is a fine ring to this familiar

quatrain of Mr. Longfellow, but it is nothing more than a musical cheat. It sounds like truth, but it is a lie. The lives of great men all remind us that they have made their own memory sublime, but they do not assure us at all that we can leave footprints like theirs behind us. If you do not believe it, go to the cemetery yonder. There they lie—10,000 upturned faces—10,000 breathless bosoms. There was a time when fire flashed in those vacant orbits, and warm ambitions pulsed in those bosoms. Dreams of fame and power once haunted those hollow skulls. Those little piles of bones that once were feet ran swiftly and determinedly through forty, fifty, sixty, seventy years of life; but where are the prints they left. "He lived; he died; he was buried," is all that the headstone tells us. We move among the monuments, we see the sculpture, but no voice comes to us to say that the sleepers are remembered for anything they ever did. Natural affection pays its tribute to its departed object; a generation passes by; the stone grows gray, and the man has ceased to be, and is to the world as if he had never lived. Why is it that no more have left a name behind them? Simply because they are not endowed by their Maker with the power to do it, and because the offices of life are mainly humble, requiring only humble powers for their fulfilment. The cemeteries of 100 years hence will be like those of to-day. Of all of those now in the schools of this country, dreaming of fame, not one in 20,000 will be heard of then; not one in 20,000 will have left a footprint behind him.

Now I believe that a school, in order to be a good one, should be one that will fit men and women, in the best way, for the humble positions that the great mass of them must necessarily occupy in life. It is not necessary that boys and girls be taught any less than they are taught now. They should receive more practical knowledge than they do now, without a doubt, and less of that which is simply ornamental, but they cannot know too much. An intelligent gardener is better than a clod-hopper, and an educated nurse is better than an ignorant one; but if the gardener and the nurse have been spoiled for their business and their condition by the sentiments which they have imbibed with their knowledge, they are made uncomfortable to themselves, and to those whom they serve. I do not care how much knowledge a man may have acquired in school, that school has been a curse to him if its influence has been to make him unhappy in his place, and to fill him with futile ambitions.

The country has great reason to lament the effect of the kind of instruction upon which I have remarked. The universal greed for office is nothing but an indication of the appetite for distinction which has been diligently fed from childhood. It is astonishing to see the rush for office on the occasion of the change of a State or national administration. Men will leave quiet and remunerative employments, and subject themselves to mean humiliations, simply to get their names into a newspaper, and to achieve a little official importance and social distinction. This desire for distinction seems to run through the whole social body, as a kind of moral scrofula, developing itself in various ways, according to circumstances and peculiarities of constitution. The consequence is that politics have become the pursuit of small men, and we no longer have an opportunity to put the best men into office. The scramble for place among fools is so great and so successful that men of dignity and modesty retire from the field in disgust. Everybody wants to "be something," and in order to be something, everybody must leave his proper place in the world, and assume a position which God never intended he should fill. Look in upon a State legislature once, and you will find sufficient illustration of my meaning. Not one man in five of the whole number possesses the first qualification for making the laws of the State, and half of them never read the Constitution of the country. I mean no contempt for the good, honest men of whom our State legislatures are principally composed; but I wish simply to say that there is nothing in their quality of mind, habits of thought, intellectual power, or style of pursuits that fits them for the great and momentous functions of legislation. They are there, a set of "nobodies," mainly for the purpose of becoming "some-

bodies," and not for any object connected with the good of the State.

Somehow, all the students in our schools get the idea that a man in order to be "somebody" must be in public life. Now think of the fact that the millions attending school in this country have in some way acquired this idea, and that only one in every 1,000 of these is either needed in public life, or can win success there. Let this fact be realized, and it is easy to see that the 999 will feel that they are somehow cheated out of their birthright. They desire to be in public life, and be "somebody," but they are not, and so their life grows tame and tasteless to them. They are disappointed. The men solace themselves with a petty justice's commission, or a town office of some kind, and the women—some of them—talk about "women's rights," and make themselves notorious and ridiculous at public meetings. I think women have rights which they do not at present enjoy, but I have very little confidence in the motives of their petticoated champions who court mobs, delight in notoriety, and glory in their opportunity to burst away from private life, and be recognized by the public as "somebodies." I insist on this: that private and even obscure life is the normal condition of the great multitude of men and women in this world; and that, to serve this private life, public life is instituted. Public life has no legitimate significance save as it is related to the service of private life. It requires peculiar talents and peculiar education, and brings with it peculiar trials; and the man best fitted for it would be the last man confidently to assert his fitness for it.

Thousands seek to become "somebodies" through the avenues of professional life; and so professional life is full of "nobodies." The pulpit is crowded with goodish "nobodies"—men who have no power—no unction—no mission. They strain their brains to write commonplaces, and wear themselves out repeating the rant of their sect and the cant of their schools. The bar is cursed with "nobodies" as much as the pulpit. The lawyers are few; the pettifoggers are many. The bar, more than any other medium, is that through which the ambitious youth of the country seek to attain political eminence. Thousands go into the study of law, not so much for the sake of the profession, as for the sake of the advantages it is supposed to give them for political preferment. An ambitious boy who has taken it into his head to be "somebody," always studies law; and as soon as he is "admitted to the bar" he is ready to begin his political scheming. Multitudes of lawyers are a disgrace to their profession, and a curse to their country. They lack the brains necessary to make them respectable, and the morals requisite for good neighborhood. They live on quarrels, and breed them that they may live. They have spoiled themselves for private life, and they spoil the private life around them. As for the medical profession, I tremble to think how many enter it because they have neither piety enough for preaching, nor brains enough to practise law. When I think of the great army of little men that is yearly commissioned to go forth into the world with a case of sharp knives in one hand, and a magazine of drugs in the other, I heave a sigh for the human race. Especially is all this lamentable when we remember that it involves the spoiling of thousands of good farmers and mechanics, to make poor professional men, while those who would make good professional men are obliged to attend to the simple duties of life, and submit to preaching that neither feeds nor stimulates them, and medicine that kills or fails to cure them.

There must be something radically wrong in our educational system when youth are generally unfitted for the station which they are to occupy, or are forced into professions for which they have no natural fitness. The truth is that the stuff talked to boys and girls alike about "aiming high," and the assurances given them, indiscriminately, that they can be anything that they choose to become, are essential nuisances. Our children all go to the public schools. They are all taught these things. They all go out into the world with high notions, and find it impossible to content themselves with their lot. They hoped to realize in life that which had been promised them in school, but all their dreams

have faded, and left them disappointed and unhappy. They envy those whom they have been taught to consider above them, and learn to count their own lives a failure. Girls starve in a mean poverty, or do worse, because they are too proud to work in a chamber or go into a shop. American servants are obsolete; all common employments are at a discount; the professions are crowded to overflowing; the country throngs with demagogues, and a general discontent with a humble lot prevails, simply because the youth of America have had the idea drilled into them that to be in private life, in whatever condition, is to be, in some sense, a "nobody." It is possible that the schools are not exclusively to blame for this state of things, and that our political harangues, and even our political institutions, have something to do with it.

What we greatly need in this country is the inculcation of soberer views of life. Boys and girls are bred to discontent. Everybody is after a high place, and nearly everybody fails to get one; and, failing, loses heart, temper, and content. The multitude dress beyond their means, and live beyond their necessities, to keep up a show of being what they are not. Farmers' daughters do not love to become farmers' wives, and even their fathers and mothers stimulate their ambition to exchange their station for one which stands higher in the world's estimation. Humble employments are held in contempt, and humble powers are everywhere making high employments contemptible. Our children need to be educated to fill, in Christian humility, the subordinate offices of life which they must fill, and taught to respect humble callings, and to beautify and glorify them by lives of contented and glad industry. When public schools accomplish an end so desirable as this, they will fulfil their mission, and they will not before. I seriously doubt whether one school in 100, public or private, comprehends its duty in this particular. They fail to inculcate the idea that the majority of the offices of life are humble; that the powers of the majority of the youth which they contain have relation to these offices; that no man is respectable when he is out of his place; and that half of the unhappiness of the world grows out of the fact that, from distorted views of life, men are in places where they do not belong. Let us have this thing altogether reformed.

Holland. The United Provinces of Holland, by their States-General, acknowledged the independence of the United States on April 19, 1782. This was brought about by the energetic application of John Adams, who, on the capture of HENRY LAURENS (*q. v.*), was sent to The Hague as minister plenipotentiary to the States-General, or government, of Holland. His special mission was to solicit a loan, but he was clothed with full powers to negotiate a treaty of amity and commerce. Mr. Adams acquainted the States-General, and also the Stadtholder (the sovereign)—the Prince of Orange—with the object of his mission. Mr. Adams was not received in the character of minister plenipotentiary until nearly a year after his arrival. He persuaded the States-General that an alliance with the United States of America would be of great commercial advantage to the Netherlands; and immediately after Holland had acknowledged the independence of the United States Mr. Adams negotiated a treaty of amity and commerce (Oct. 8, 1782); he also made a successful application for a loan, which was a seasonable aid for the exhausted treasury of the colonies. The treaty was signed at The Hague by John Adams and the representatives of the Netherlands, and was ratified in January, 1783.

Late in 1780 Great Britain, satisfied that the Netherlands would give national aid to the "rebellious colonies," and desirous of keeping that power from joining the Armed Neutrality League, sought a pretext for declaring war against the Dutch. British cruisers had already depredated upon Dutch commerce in time of peace, and the British government treated the Netherlands more as a vassal than as an independent nation. The British ministry found a pretext for war in October (1780), when Henry Laurens, late president of the American Congress, was captured on the high seas by a British cruiser, and with him were found evidences of the negotiation of a treaty between the United States and the Nether-

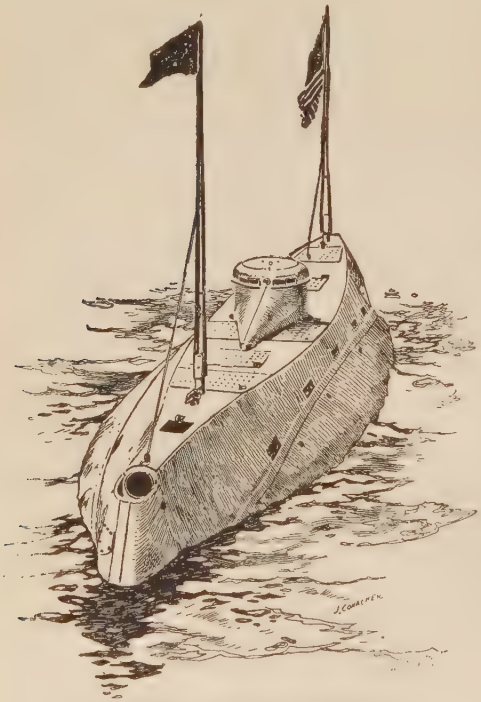
lands, which had been in progress some time. On Dec. 20 King George declared war against Holland. Before the declaration had been promulgated, and while efforts were making at The Hague to conciliate England and avoid war, British cruisers pounced upon and captured 200 unsuspecting merchant vessels laden with cargoes of the aggregate value of $5,000,900; orders had also gone forth for the seizure of the Dutch island of Eustatius. This cruel and unjust war deepened the hatred of continental Europe for Great Britain, for that government was regarded as a bully, ever ready to oppress and plunder the weak.

The social condition of Holland in the seventeenth century was favorable to the development of new states. The feudal system, in which large landholders whose tenants were military men controlled all labor and bore allegiance to the lordly proprietor, had begun to decay. A new era had gradually dawned upon Holland. Labor had become honorable. The owner of the soil was no longer the head of a band of armed desperadoes who were his dependants, but the careful proprietor of broad acres, and devoted to industry and thrift. The nobles, who composed the landed class, gradually came down from the stilts of exclusiveness, and in their habits, and even costume, imitated the working people. The latter became elevated in the social scale. Their rights were respected, and their value in the state was duly estimated. Ceaseless toil in Holland was necessary to preserve the hollow land from the invasion of the sea, and to extract, by the hands of skilled and unskilled industry, bread for the multitude. Common needs assimilated all classes in a country where all must work or starve or drown. The moral tone of society was wonderfully elevated and political wisdom abounded. It was this state of society in Holland that stimulated agricultural interests and pursuits and furnished sturdy, intelligent, and industrious yeomen for NEW NETHERLAND (*q. v.*). Their example changed the pursuit of many a hunter and trapper in the Hudson and Mohawk valleys who became farmers.

Holland Land Company. The tract of land ceded by the State of New York to the State of Massachusetts in 1786 was sold by the latter State to Oliver Phelps and Nathaniel Gorham for $1,000,000. They soon afterwards extinguished the Indian title to a part of this territory, surveyed it into tracts denominated ranges and townships, and sold large parcels to speculators and actual settlers. In 1790 they sold nearly the whole of the residue of the survey (1,204,000 acres) to Robert Morris, of Philadelphia, for 8*d.* an acre, who resold it to Sir William Pulteney. Phelps and Gorham, being unable to fulfil their contract in full with Massachusetts, compromised and surrendered that portion of the land to which the Indian title was unextinguished, in consideration of which the State relinquished two-thirds of the contract price. In 1796 Robert Morris purchased from the State this portion also, extinguished the Indian title, sold off several large tracts upon the east side of and along the Genesee River, and mortgaged the residue to Wilhelm Willink, of Amsterdam, and eleven associates, called the Holland Land Company. This company, by the foreclosure of the mortgage, acquired full title to the land, surveyed it, and opened their first land office in Batavia, N. Y., in 1801. It was in this land speculation that Robert Morris was involved in financial ruin, and compelled to endure the privations of a debtor's prison for a long time. The Holland Land Company having sold the larger part of the domain, they, in 1805, conveyed the residue of the wild lands to several companies, who finally disposed of all to *bona fide* purchasers and settlers.

Holland Submarine Torpedo-boat. John P. Holland devised a submarine boat which met with the requirements of the United States Navy Department. When submerged, the boat was propelled by electricity, and able to make 8 knots for six hours. Among the requirements were power to carry two tubes for automobile torpedoes; ability to reach a depth of 20 feet within one minute after being ordered to dive, the boat running light at full speed, and with smokepipe at full height; power to dive to a depth of 20 feet within thirty seconds, the boat before diving running at full speed with steam-power, and with 3 feet of water

over hull, and smoke-pipe up; with complete submergence and 3 feet of water over turret, the pilot to obtain a view with a camera-lucida in a tube projecting above the surface; a turret to rise 4 feet above the hull, with an armor cylinder of 8 inches thickness to protect the pilot's head; a complete double shell to extend



THE HOLLAND SUBMARINE TORPEDO-BOAT.

about three-quarters of the vessel's length from the stem; ability to stand the water pressure at a depth of 70 feet; automatic arrangements for preventing a too deep submergence; automatic compensation for weights consumed, and independent mechanism for correcting variations in trim due to shifting weights; mechanical means for steering a fixed course; air to be supplied for crew either chemically or by storage under pressure in tanks; apparatus to cause the vessel to rise quickly to the surface; ability to maintain an approximately fixed position and definite depth of submergence without undue expenditure of power; provision for escape of crew in emergency. Since the building of the first boat many improvements have been made, all tending to increase the practicability of submarine action.

Mr. Holland writes of his boat as follows:

When the first submarine torpedo-boat goes into action, she will bring us face to face with the most puzzling problem ever met in warfare. She will present the unique spectacle, when used in attack, of a weapon against which there is no defence. You can send torpedo-boat destroyers against torpedo-boats, but you can send nothing against the submarine boat, not even itself. The fanciful descriptions of the submarine battle of the future have one fatal defect. You cannot see under water. Hence, you cannot fight under water.

To-morrow, if we had a fleet of submarines big enough, they could protect New York Harbor completely against an attack by the combined surface fleets of the world. But our shipping and our city would still be at the mercy of our enemies, if they had even one submarine, manned by a fearless crew of experts. You could not close the harbor against her, even with a net-work of torpedoes and chains stretched across the Narrows, reaching from the surface to the bottom of the channel. From a safe distance she would simply send a torpedo against the net-work that would blow it to pieces, giving her all the passage-way she wanted to go in and out. She would never have to expose herself for more than a second at a time during all her work of destruction in the harbor. This would be when she rose to discharge her gun to shell the city. The recoil of the gun would send her down again and out of sight. Her torpedoes she should discharge without coming to the surface at all.

How the menace of the submarine is to be met nobody has at this time been able to say. The greatest minds in the armies and navies of the world are wrestling with the problem, but so far they have not succeeded in solving it. With the investment of Santiago the world undoubtedly saw the last instance of a harbor

of a civilized nation being closed by hostile war-ships—that is, unless the next war comes with unexpected suddenness. The six Holland boats building for the United States, though inadequate for general protection, would make a big hole in any blockading squadron that settled down in front of one of our great harbors. The squadron would have to face almost inevitable destruction, or put out to sea.

A submarine is now under construction which will start on a journey across the Atlantic, travelling entirely under her own power. She will go first to Bermuda, a distance of 676 miles, then to Fayal, 1,880 miles, and thence to Lisbon, 940 miles, or a total of 3,496 miles. If it were deemed advisable, the trip could just as easily be made direct, without making a call at any intermediate port.

This boat will go on the surface almost exclusively. Her chief motive power will be a gasoline engine of 160 horse-power, that will drive her at the rate of 9½ knots an hour. This engine will also generate the electric power that may be needed for submerged runs, and such work as may be deemed expedient in the harbors where she touches. Her crew will subsist entirely on the provisions she carries. The food will be cooked by electricity. The crew will consist of seven men, who will sleep in hammocks slung from the ceiling.

During storms or dirty weather the boat will run awash, only her turret showing above the surface, and, as the water will break over instead of against her, there will be no rolling. She will be accompanied by a tender, with an extra crew, in case her own men find the confinement too much to endure for the sixteen days required in crossing the ocean.

This trip will show that it is possible to send a fleet of submarines against a foreign coast, as well as to employ them for defence at home.

Within the next ten years we shall have made more progress in submerged navigation than has been made in the 300 years that have just passed. Within that period, I expect to see submarine boats engaged in regular passenger traffic. Owing to the well-defined limitations that surround travel under water, it is no difficult matter to forecast what the nature of such travel will be.

For trans-Atlantic travel submarine boats will never be possible commercially. For short trips, however, the submarine offers commercial advantages that will render it a dangerous rival of the surface-sailing vessel, if, indeed, it does not drive the latter entirely out of the competition in particular waters. Take, for example, the trip across the English Channel. No other water journey causes an equal amount of suffering. The most hardened traveller becomes sea-sick there. On the submarine there will be no sea-sickness, because in a submerged boat there is absolutely no perceptible motion. There will be no smells to create nausea, for the boats will be propelled by electric power taken from storage batteries, which will be charged at either end. The offensive odor that causes so much discomfort in surface boats is due to the heated oil on the bearings, and to the escaping steam. There will be no steam on these submerged Channel boats, and the little machinery necessary to drive them will be confined within an air-tight chamber.

Almost without a jar, the boat will put off from her dock on the English side. Practically no vibration will be felt from the smoothly running machinery. Before the traveller fairly realizes that a start has been made, the boat will be fast at her dock at Calais. This is no dream. It is simply the forecast of a trip that I myself expect to make some day, and I am fifty-nine years old. It is so feasible commercially that capital in plenty will be found for its realization.

Boats of this class will be more economical than the surface Channel boats are to-day. The first cost, it is true, will be larger than that of constructing the present-day craft; but, after that, with charging stations on either shore, the operating expenses will be much less. These boats will be from 160 to 200 feet in length. Larger boats will never be feasible, unless we discover some better system of storing electricity than exists to-day —a contingency which is exceedingly doubtful.

In the domain of science, much may be expected of the submarine. With her aid, the bottom of the ocean will be safely explored at comparatively great depths. Just how far down we shall be able to go

in her, no one at this time knows. Singularly enough, we have never ascertained the limit of safety—that is, the point where the weight of the water is so great that it will crush the stoutest submarine that could be built. It has been estimated that 400 feet below the surface is the limit, but it may be 1,000 feet, just as well, for all the definite information we have on the subject.

In certain submarine pursuits—such as wrecking, pearl and sponge fishing, etc. —a complete revolution will be wrought. Millions of dollars now lost to the world in submerged wrecks will be recovered, and the work of raising sunken ships will be a matter of days, instead of months, with the submarine's aid.

The surveying of harbors and shoals and obstructions to navigation will be reduced to an exact science. Where now such surveys can be made only semi-occasionally, a perfect system of submarine patrol will be maintained.

Experience teaches that, wherever its application is desirable, submarine navigation is the safest method of water travel we have. For more than 300 years there have been submarine boats. In all that time only one life has been lost in a boat running beneath the water. When it is remembered that, during all these years, the craft employed has been experimental, this record is certainly marvellous.

For twenty-one years I have been experimenting with submarine boats. I have travelled in submerged boats under all sorts of conditions and with all sorts of crews. All my work has been experimental, the most dangerous stage of any mode of travel. Yet I have never had an accident. Certainly, that is a fair showing for nearly a quarter of a century of work.

Possibly some people will exclaim against my statement that only one life has been lost in a submerged boat. They will point to half a dozen cases "of record" where whole crews lost their lives. The answer to that is very simple. The majority of cases so recorded were utterly without foundation. In other cases, the men operating the submarine boats were drowned while they were using them as surface boats, and because of that fact. The boat built by McClintock and Howgate for the Confederates sank four times with her crews, the last time after she had blown up the *Housatonic*. These accidents are charged against submarine navigation, when the fact is that had the boat been used as intended, under water, instead of on the surface, she would not have lost a single life.

Admiral Hichborn, chief constructor of the navy, went extensively into the question of fatal accidents in submarine navigation. He found there were eighty-three cases set down at various times. On investigation he found that fifty had never occurred at all. Thirty-two were chargeable to the Howgate boat. The only case he could find where life had been lost in a submarine, when she was acting as such, was that of Day, an Englishman, who built and operated a submarine boat late in the seventeenth century. The second time she was submerged, it is reported that the hull was crushed by the weight of water. In a report on the subject, Admiral Hichborn wrote:

"If Day were really crushed in his boat, he has the unique distinction of being the only victim of the dangers of submarine navigation; but this distinction depends upon the supposition that reports of submarine accidents were much more reliable 240 years ago than they have been for the last forty years, during which period there have been authentic newspaper reports of the loss of eighty-two lives in attempting submarine navigation in the United States. Fifty of these lives were not lost at all, and the other thirty-two, though lost in a boat designed to operate as a submarine, were all lost when, and apparently because, she was not so operating."

Fulton, who went into submarine navigation before he took up steamboats, ran against a solid stone wall of prejudice. He built two excellent boats in France, but all his perseverance could not overcome the fear men have of going down into an element that they invariably associate with drowning. So, though he had the active interest and good-will of the first Napoleon, Fulton had to drop the matter.

To a limited class at least, to the naval men of France and America, it has been demonstrated that the submarine is not

a trap in which men are drowned like rats. The extension of this knowledge may be expected to be rapid. The commercial application of submarine navigation will follow almost immediately in the wake of this extension.

Holley, ORVILLE LUTHER, editor; born in Salisbury, Conn., May 19, 1791; graduated at Harvard in 1813; studied law and practised in Hudson, Canandaigua, and New York City. He was editor of the *Anti-Masonic Magazine,* Troy *Sentinel,* the *Ontario Repository,* the Albany *Daily Advertiser,* and the *State Register;* was surveyor-general of the State in 1838; and author of *Description of the City of New York;* and *Life of Franklin.* He died in Albany, N. Y., March 25, 1861.

Hollins, GEORGE NICHOLS, naval officer; born in Baltimore, Md., Sept. 20, 1799; entered the United States navy in 1814; and assisted in the defence of the capital in August of that year. He was made a prisoner on board the *President,* and kept so until the end of the war. In 1815 he accompanied Decatur to the Mediterranean. He became notorious by the bombardment of a town on the Pacific coast (see GREYTOWN). In 1861 he left the navy and joined the Confederates, and in the Confederate service operated on the Mississippi with "rams" and gunboats, becoming a commodore and flag-captain. He died in Baltimore Jan. 18, 1878.

Hollis, THOMAS, philanthropist; born in England in 1659; was a benefactor of Harvard College, by giving it, altogether, nearly $20,000 in endowments of professorships. He also gave books to the library, and fonts of Hebrew and Greek type for the use of the college. He died in London in February, 1731.

Hollister, GIDEON HIRAM, author; born in Washington, Conn., Dec. 14, 1817; graduated at Yale College in 1840, studied law and practised in Litchfield, Stratford, Bridgeport, and Woodbury, Conn. He was clerk of courts in Litchfield in 1843–52; elected State Senator in 1856; and was appointed consul-general and United States minister to Haiti by President Johnson in 1868. In 1880 he was elected to the legislature, and there delivered a speech on the New York boundary question. He was author of *Andersonville* (a poem); *Mount Hope,* a historical romance of King Philip's War; and *History of Connecticut.* He died in Litchfield, Conn., March 24, 1881.

Holly Springs, CAPTURE OF. During the siege of Vicksburg by General Grant in 1862–63, the Confederates under Van Dorn captured Holly Springs, 28 miles in the rear of the National army, on Dec. 20, 1862. The entire garrison were taken prisoners, and all the stores intended for the use of the National army were destroyed. About the same time General Forrest destroyed the railroad at various points between Columbus and Jackson. General Pemberton, knowing that it would be impossible for Grant to proceed under these circumstances, returned to Vicksburg in time to assist in repulsing the National army under Sherman, which had attacked the batteries in the immediate vicinity of Vicksburg. As a result, Sherman was obliged to relinquish his position and to get his army back into the transports. See VICKSBURG, SIEGE OF.

Holman, WILLIAM STEELE, statesman; born in Dearborn county, Ind., Sept. 6, 1822; member of Congress sixteen terms; nicknamed "The Great Objector" and "The Watch-dog of the Treasury," on account of his objections to appropriations which he considered extravagant. He died in Washington, D. C., April 22, 1897.

Holmes, ABIEL, clergyman; born in Woodstock, Conn., Dec. 24, 1763; graduated at Yale College in 1783. He published the valuable *Annals of America,* closing in 1826. He died in Cambridge, Mass., June 4, 1837.

Holmes, FORT. See MACKINAW.

Holmes, JEREMIAH. See STONINGTON.

Holmes, OLIVER WENDELL, author; born in Cambridge, Mass., Aug. 29, 1809; son of Abiel Holmes; graduated at Harvard College in 1829; began the study of law, but soon abandoned it for the study of medicine; and in 1822 went to Europe, and studied in the hospitals of Paris and other large cities. In 1838 Dr. Holmes was appointed Professor of Anatomy and Physiology in Dartmouth College; and in 1847 he was given the same chair in Harvard, which he filled till 1883. He began his brilliant literary career in early life as a poet and essayist, and sustained the

bright promise of his youth. His poems are often strongly marked with the most delicate humor, and he ranks high as a poet at home and abroad. His contributions to newspaper and magazine literature were highly esteemed. He died in Boston, Oct. 7, 1894.

Holmes, OLIVER WENDELL, jurist; born in Boston, Mass., March 8, 1841; son of Oliver Wendell Holmes, Sr., the poet; was graduated at Harvard College in 1861, and at the law school in 1866; served in the volunteer army during the Civil War till 1863, when, on account of being wounded, he was mustered out, having attained the rank of brevet lieutenant-colonel. He engaged in the practice of law in Boston; was editor of the *American Law Review* in 1870–73; professor of law at the Harvard Law School in 1882; appointed associate justice of the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts in the same year and chief justice in 1899; and became an associate justice of the Supreme Court of the United States in 1902. He published *The Common Law;* and edited an edition of *Kent's Commentaries.*

Holst, HERMANN EDUARD VON, historian; born in Fellin, Livonia, June 19, 1841; was educated in the universities of Dorpat and Heidelberg; came to the United States in 1866, and settled in New York. In 1869 he became assistant editor of a German-American dictionary, and was a frequent contributor to American journals. In 1872 he became professor of history in Strasburg University, and in 1877 in Freiburg University. In 1892 he accepted the position of head professor of history in the University of Chicago. His most important work is *The Constitutional and Political History of the United States.* He is also author of *The Constitutional Law of the United States of America;* and the *Life of John C. Calhoun* (in the *American Statesmen Series).* He died in Freiburg, Germany, Jan. 20, 1904.

Holt, JOSEPH, jurist; born in Breckenridge county, Ky., Jan. 6, 1807; acquired a collegiate education; and entered upon the practice of law in 1828. He followed his profession in Kentucky and Mississippi until 1857, when President Buchanan appointed him commissioner of patents, and, in 1859, Postmaster-General. When John B. Floyd left the cabinet at the close of 1860, Mr. Holt assumed charge of the War Department, in which post he was watchful and efficient. In 1863 he was appointed judge-advocate of the army, and was a thorough supporter of Lincoln's administration throughout. In 1864 he was placed at the head of the bureau of military justice, and declined the cabinet appointment of Attorney-General. He was brevetted major-general of the United States army in March, 1865, and was retired, Dec. 1, 1875. He died in Washington, D. C., Aug. 1, 1894.

Homes, HENRY AUGUSTUS, author; born in Boston, Mass., March 10, 1812; graduated at Amherst in 1830; and studied in Paris, France, where he was ordained a missionary of the Reformed Church to Turkey in 1835; joined the American board in Constantinople in the following year, and served as a missionary till 1850; was in the diplomatic service of the United States at Constantinople in 1851–53; returned to the United States in the latter year; became assistant librarian of the New York State Library in 1854, and librarian in 1862. He was

JOSEPH HOLT.

author of *Our Knowledge of California and the Northwest; The Future Development of the New York State Library;* and *The Correct Arms of the State of New York.* He died in Albany, N. Y., Nov. 3, 1887.

Homes, MARY SOPHIE SHAW, author; born in Frederick, Md., about 1830; removed to New Orleans, La., and was educated there. She has written *Carrie Har-*

rington, or Scenes in New Orleans; Progression, or the South Defended, etc.

Homestead Laws. The treaty of 1783 declared the territory of the United States to extend westward from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi. A large part of this land was claimed by certain of the States, who contended that their original grants gave them the territory inland to the western boundary of the country. But when the Confederation was formed it was decided to cede all this territory to Congress, and this was accordingly done. There were numbers of claims on these lands, and Congress created eight boards of commissioners to examine into and settle these. But land not claimed was to be disposed of without delay, and Congress in 1785 drew up an ordinance directing the Secretary of War to draw by lot certain townships in the surveyed portion for bounties to the soldiers of the Continental army, and the remainder was to be drawn by lot in the name of the Western States, to be sold by the officers of the treasury at public sale for not less than $1 per acre. This message, however, was a failure, and it was intimated that the States which had any lands of their own to dispose of took pains to make it inoperative.

Meanwhile, settlers began to make entries on public lands without authority, and the government was obliged to resort to force to drive them off. A company of United States troops was kept going up and down the Ohio River from the Pennsylvania line to Cincinnati from 1784 to 1786, burning all the cabins and laying down and burning the fences of these "squatters." Often this operation had to be repeated several times to drive away the determined pioneers. In 1787 the price of public land was reduced to $66^2/_3$ cents per acre, and during the next year the regulation for drawing the land by States was repeated, and the Treasury Department, which then had charge of the sale of public lands, was empowered to sell them in any part of the United States at pleasure. The low price attracted settlers, and large tracts for settlement were purchased by associations of colonists; but the States had also much land for sale, and they eagerly pushed these in the market, underbidding the government to check Western immigration, and the Spaniards holding land in Illinois offered farms without charge to actual settlers.

After the meeting of the first Congress under the Constitution the matter was referred to Hamilton, who, in July, 1790, submitted to the House of Representatives a plan for the disposal of the public territory. Congress, however, was very slow to act in the matter, and neither adopted Hamilton's plan nor framed any other. In 1796 the present system of surveying lands was in substance adopted, and provision was made for the public sale of lands in sections one mile square, at a price not less than $2 per acre. In 1800 land offices and land registers were established, and important changes were made in the provisions of the land laws that governed the terms of payment. The lands were to be sold for not less than $2 per acre, but only a fourth part of the purchase money was required at the time, and the payment of the balance was to be spread over three years. In case full payment was not made within one year after the last instalment had become due, the lands were to be sold, or to revert to the United States.

The natural result of the scheme was the piling up of an enormous debt, which the government never could collect, and from 1809 to 1824 hardly a year passed without the passage of a "relief act" by Congress to suspend or mitigate the operations of the law in particular instances or to relieve settlers from their indebtedness. In 1820 a law was passed abolishing the credit system and authorizing the selling of land in half-quarter sections, and making the minimum price $1.25 per acre. This caused great dissatisfaction on the part of the States, since as all lands were at the same minimum price the best lands were taken up first and large tracts of inferior lands were left, which bore no share, as public lands, of State or local taxation. In 1824 Benton introduced into Congress a bill for granting pre-emption rights to actual settlers and for graduating the price of lands, but it was rejected. The States were now becoming very eager to effect internal improvements, and regarding the existence of large tracts of public land within their limits as a

hinderance, begun to clamor for the restoration of these lands.

Schemes without number were now concocted for the disposal of the public lands, and in the session of 1827–28 Congress actually gave away to States and individuals—largely on the plea of internal improvements—no less than 2,300,000 acres of public land, and the suggestion was seriously made to restore all the public lands in the States to the State governments. This was strongly opposed, however, and many warm debates were carried on in Congress for several years on the public land question. These were in a measure checked by the fever for speculation in public lands which raged from 1834 till it precipitated the crash of 1837, but were renewed with even greater ardor when the proposition came up to have the general government assume the debts of the States which had lost heavily in the speculative era.

The plan to give the public lands to the States was again thrust forward and was advocated by President Tyler in his first message, but though a number of bills were brought before Congress proposing such a distribution, none actually became laws, except one providing for a gift of land to new States, which was passed in 1841, as part of the first pre-emption law. The cession of public lands to railroads on a large scale was begun in 1850, and has since led to the disposal of a very large proportion of the public lands. About 1852 a homestead law, which was warmly advocated by the Free-soil Democracy, became a national question. Several bills passed one House of Congress but failed in the other. In 1860 a homestead bill actually passed, but was vetoed by President Buchanan on the plea that its provisions were not fair to all classes concerned. It was not until 1862 that the homestead law, as we have it to-day, was adopted. See EXEMPTIONS FROM TAXATION.

Hood, JOHN BELL, military officer; born in Owenville, Bath co., Ky., June 1, 1831; graduated at West Point in 1853; became a cavalry officer, and fought the Comanche Indians, in Texas, in 1857. He left the United States army and espoused the cause of the Confederates in 1861, receiving the appointment of brigadier-general. He joined Twiggs in betraying the army in Texas into the hands of the Confederates. He was promoted to major-general in 1862, and commanded the largest division of Longstreet's corps at Gettysburg. He lost a leg at Chickamauga. In the Atlanta campaign in 1864 he was with Longstreet, and superseded Johnston in command of the army at Atlanta in July. He invaded Tennessee late in that year; was defeated at Nashville; driven into Alabama, and was relieved of command by Gen. Richard Taylor. He died in New Orleans, Aug. 30, 1879.

JOHN BELL HOOD.

Instructed by the chief of the Confederacy to draw Sherman out of Georgia, for his presence was creating great disaffection to the Confederate cause, Hood, in October, 1864, moved rapidly towards Tennessee, threatening important points on the railway. Sherman followed as rapidly, and, by forced marches, saved Kingston (Oct. 10), which was one of the threatened places. Hood turned westward towards Rome. Sherman followed, and sent Garrard's cavalry and the 23d Corps across the Oostenaula, to strike Hood's flank if he should turn northward. By quick movements Hood avoided the intended blow, and, appearing before Resaca, demanded its surrender. A vigorous attack by the Confederates was repulsed, and Hood moved on, closely pursued by Sherman. The Confederates de-

stroyed the railway near Buzzard's Roost, and captured the Union garrison at Dalton. Sherman tried to make Hood fight, but that active leader avoided this peril and puzzled the Nationals by his inexplicable movements. Still pursuing, Sherman and his entire force were grouped about Gaylesville, in a fertile region of northern Alabama. Now satisfied that Hood did not mean to fight, but was luring the Nationals out of Georgia, Sherman determined to execute a plan which he had already submitted to General Grant —namely, to destroy Atlanta and its railway communications, march his army through the heart of Georgia, and capture and take possession of Savannah or Charleston, on the Atlantic seaboard. He abandoned the chase after Hood and returned to Atlanta early in November. See SHERMAN, WILLIAM TECUMSEH.

Hood, SAMUEL, lawyer; born in Moyle, Ireland, about 1800; came to the United States in 1826; admitted to the bar in Philadelphia, and began practice there. He contributed to periodicals and published *A Practical Treatise on the Law of Decedents in Pennsylvania.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., about 1875.

Hooker, JOSEPH, military officer; born in Hadley, Mass., Nov. 13, 1814; graduated at West Point in 1837, entering

JOSEPH HOOKER.

the artillery. He served in the war with Mexico, and was brevetted lieutenant-colonel for bravery therein. He resigned in 1853 and settled in California, where he was residing when, in May, 1861, he was appointed brigadier-general of volunteers and assigned to the Army of the Potomac, in which he acquired the name of "Fighting Joe" Hooker. In May, 1862, he was promoted to major-general. He was severely wounded in the battle of Antietam, and soon afterwards was commissioned brigadier-general in the United States army. Early in 1863 he succeeded GEN. AMBROSE E. BURNSIDE (*q. v.*) in the command of the Army of the Potomac, and was himself succeeded by GEN. GEORGE G. MEADE (*q. v.*) in June. He performed efficient service near Chattanooga in the fall of 1863, and in the Atlanta campaign of 1864. In 1868 he was retired with the full rank of major-general. He died in Garden City, N. Y., Oct. 31, 1879.

Hooker, THOMAS, clergyman; born in Marketfield, Leicestershire, England, in 1586; was a popular Non-conformist preacher in London, but was silenced, when he kept a school, in which John Eliot, the "Apostle," was his assistant. Hooker fled from persecution to Holland in 1630, and arrived at Boston in September, 1633. He was ordained pastor of the church at Newtown, and in June, 1636, he and his whole congregation began a migration to the valley of the Connecticut, where they founded Hartford. He was exceedingly influential in all New England. He died in Hartford, Conn., July 7, 1647.

Hooper, WILLIAM, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Boston, June 17, 1742; graduated at Harvard in 1760; studied law under James Otis; and went to North Carolina in 1764, settling in Wilmington in 1767. He was a representative in the provincial legislature, and was a delegate to the first Continental Congress in 1774, in which he drew up an address to the inhabitants of Jamaica. Soon after signing the Declaration of Independence he resigned his seat and returned home, where he subsequently took part in local public affairs. He died in Hillsboro, N. C., in October, 1790.

Hoover's Gap, BATTLE AT. The 14th Army Corps under General Thomas, the 20th Corps under General McCook, and the 21st Corps under General Crittenden, of the National Army of the Cumberland, at-

tacked the Confederate Army of the Tennessee at Hoover's Gap, Tenn., June 24, 1863. Thomas succeeded in driving the Confederates from Hoover's Gap, and McCook secured possession of Liberty Gap. General Bragg, not feeling strong enough to meet Rosecrans in battle, retreated across the Tennessee River to Chattanooga. See BRAGG, BRAXTON; ROSECRANS, WILLIAM STARKE.

Hope, JAMES, artist; born in Abbotsford, Scotland, Nov. 29, 1818; removed to Canada when a boy. In 1840 he settled in Fair Haven, Vt.; was educated at the Castleton (Vt.) Seminary; studied art; and in 1853 opened a studio in New York. His paintings include *The Army of the Potomac.*

Hopkins, ALBERT J., lawyer; born in Dekalb county, Ill., Aug. 15, 1846; was graduated at Hillsdale (Mich.) College in 1870; practised law in Aurora, Ill.; was a member of Congress in 1885–1903; and a United States Senator in 1903–09.

Hopkins, EDWARD, statesman; born in Shrewsbury, England, in 1600; was a successful merchant in London, and, being much attached to JOHN DAVENPORT (*q. v.*), came with him to America, in 1637, and accompanied him to the banks of the Quinnipiac and assisted in the preliminary work of founding the New Haven colony. He went to Hartford, where he was chosen governor in 1639, and ruled the Connecticut colony from 1640 to 1654, alternately, every other year, with JOHN HAYNES (*q. v.*). On the death of his elder brother, Mr. Hopkins returned to England, where he became warden of the fleet, commissioner of the admiralty, and member of Parliament. In 1643 Mr. Hopkins aided in forming the New England Confederacy, and he never lost his interest in the colonies. At his death, in London, March, 1657, he bequeathed much of his estate to New England institutions of learning—for the support of grammar schools in Hartford and New Haven, which are still kept up. He also left a donation of £500, which, by a decree in chancery, went to Harvard College.

Hopkins, ESEK, naval officer; born in Scituate, R. I., in 1718. Governor Cooke commissioned him a brigadier-general at the breaking out of the Revolution. In December, 1775, Congress commissioned him commander-in-chief of the inchoate navy, and he put to sea in the first squadron in February, 1776, consisting of four ships and three sloops, sailing for the Bahama Islands. There he captured a large quantity of ordnance stores and ammunition, and 100 cannon. He captured two British vessels on his return. Complaint was made that he had not annoyed the British ships on the southern coast, and he was arraigned before the naval

ESEK HOPKINS.

committee of Congress on the charge. He was acquitted, but unavoidable delays in getting vessels to sea afterwards caused other charges to be made, and he was dismissed the service, Jan. 2, 1777. During his long life he exerted great political influence in Rhode Island. He died in North Providence, R. I., Feb. 26, 1802.

Hopkins, JOHNS, philanthropist; born in Anne Arundel county, Md., May 19, 1795; went to Baltimore in 1812 and entered a wholesale grocery store; and soon afterwards established himself in the trade. In 1822 he founded the house of Hopkins & Brothers, in which he made a large fortune. He retired from the grocery business in 1847, and engaged in banking and railroad enterprises; became director of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company; and chairman of its finance committee in 1855. He aided in founding the Johns

Hopkins Hospital, to which he gave property valued at $4,500,000, in 1873; presented the city of Baltimore with a public park; and gave $3,500,000 to found JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY (*q. v.*). He died in Baltimore, Md., Dec. 24, 1873.

Hopkins, MARK, educator; born in Stockbridge, Mass., Feb. 4, 1802; was graduated at Williams College in 1824; and was professor of moral philosophy and rhetoric there in 1830–36, and its president in 1836–72; and was connected with the college at the time of his death. He was the author of *Evidences of Christianity; Lectures on Moral Science;* etc. He died in Williamstown, Mass., June 17, 1887.

Hopkins, SAMUEL, author; born in Hadley, Mass., April 11, 1807; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1827. His publications include *The Youth of the Old Dominion; The Puritans and Queen Elizabeth;* etc. He died in Northampton, Mass., Feb. 10, 1887.

Hopkins, SAMUEL, clergyman; born in Waterbury, Conn., Sept. 17, 1721; graduated at Yale College in 1741; became a pastor in 1743; and settled in Newport in 1770. As early as 1773 he formed a plan for evangelizing Africa and colonizing it with free negroes from America. He exerted such influence against slavery that, in 1774, Rhode Island passed a law forbidding the importation of negroes into the colony, and, early in 1784, the legislature declared that all children born after the following March should be free. He was one of the most noted theologians of his day. He died in Newport, R. I., Dec. 20, 1803.

HOPKINS, STEPHEN

Hopkins, STEPHEN, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Scituate, R. I., March 7, 1707; was engaged in early life in mercantile business and land surveying; became an active member of the Rhode Island legislature, and was speaker of the Assembly from 1732 till 1741. In 1739 he was chief-justice of the Court of Common Pleas, and of the Supreme Court from 1751 to 1754. Mr. Hopkins was a delegate in the colonial convention at Albany in 1754, and one of the committee who drew up a plan of union. From 1754 to 1768 he was governor of Rhode Island, excepting four years. He was a member of the first Continental Congress, and remained in that body from 1776 to 1778. He had been from the beginning a stanch opposer of the oppressive measures of Parliament. He was one of the committee that drafted the Articles of Confederation (see CONFEDERATION, ARTICLES OF); was a superior mathematician; and was for many years chancellor of Brown University. Notwithstanding his defective early education, his knowledge of literature, science, and political economy was varied and extensive. He died in Providence, July 13, 1785.

Grievances of the American Colonies.— Under date of July 30, 1764, he issued the following statement in the form of a pamphlet bearing the full title of *The Grievances of the American Colonies Candidly Examined.* The pamphlet was printed by order of the General Assembly in 1765, and reissued in London in the following year:

Liberty is the greatest blessing that man can enjoy, and slavery the greatest curse that human nature is capable of. Hence it is a matter of the utmost importance to men which of the two shall be their portion. Absolute liberty is, perhaps, incompatible with any kind of government. The safety resulting from society, and the advantages of just and equal laws, hath caused men to forego some part of their natural liberty, and submit to government. This appears to be the most rational account of its beginning, although, it must be confessed, mankind have by no means been agreed about it; some have found its origin in the divine appointment; others have thought it took its rise from power; enthusiasts have dreamed that dominion was founded in grace. Leaving these points to be settled by the descendants of Filmer, Cromwell, and Venner, we shall consider the British constitution, as it at present stands, on revolution principles; and from thence endeavor to find the

measure of the magistrates' power and the people's obedience.

This glorious constitution, the best that ever existed among men, will be confessed by all to be founded on compact, and established by consent of the people. By this most beneficent compact, British subjects are to be governed only agreeably to laws to which themselves have in some way consented, and are not to be compelled to part with their property, but as it is called for by the authority of such laws. The former is truly liberty; the latter is to be really possessed of property, and to have something that may be called one's own.

On the contrary, those who are governed at the will of another, or others, and whose property may be taken from them by taxes, or otherwise, without their own consent, or against their will, are in a miserable condition of slavery; "for," says Algernon Sidney, in his discourse on government, "liberty solely consists in the independency of the will of another; and by name of slave we understand a man who can neither dispose of his person or goods, and enjoys all at the will of his master." These things premised, whether the British-American colonies on this continent are justly entitled to like privileges and freedoms as their fellow-subjects in Great Britain are, is a point worthy mature examination. In discussing this question we shall make the colonies of New England, with whose rights we are best acquainted, the rule of our reasoning; not in the least doubting all the others are justly entitled to like rights with them.

New England was first planted by adventurers, who left England, their native country, by permission of King Charles I., and at their own expense transported themselves to America, and, with great risk and difficulty, settled among the savages, and, in a very surprising manner, formed new colonies in the wilderness. Before their departure the terms of their freedom and the relation they should stand in to their mother country were fully settled. They were to remain subject to the King and dependent on the kingdom of Great Britain. In return they were to receive protection and enjoy all the rights and privileges of free-born Englishmen. This is abundantly proved by the charter given to the Massachusetts colony while they were still in England, and which they received and brought over with them as an authentic evidence of the condition they removed upon. The colonies of Connecticut and Rhode Island also afterwards obtained charters from the crown granting like ample privileges. By all these charters it is in the most express and solemn manner granted that these adventurers, and their children after them forever, should have and enjoy all the freedom and liberty that the subjects in England enjoy. That they might make laws for their government, suitable to their circumstances, not repugnant to, but as near as might be agreeable to, the laws of England; that they might purchase lands, acquire goods, and use trade for their advantage and have an absolute property in whatever they justly acquired. This, with many other gracious privileges, were granted them by several kings; and they were to pay, as an acknowledgment to the crown, only one-fifth of the ore of gold and silver that should at any time be found in the said colonies, in lieu of a full satisfaction for all dues and demands of the crown and kingdom of England upon them.

There is not anything new or extraordinary in these rights granted to the British colonies. The colonies from all countries at all times have enjoyed equal freedom with the mother state. Indeed, there would be found very few people in the world willing to leave their native country and go through the fatigue and hardship of planting in a new, uncultivated one for the sake of losing their freedom. They who settle new countries must be poor, and in course ought to be free. Advantages, pecuniary and agreeable, are not on the side of the emigrants, and surely they must have something in their stead.

To illustrate this, permit us to examine what hath generally been the condition of the colonies with respect to their freedom. We will begin with those who went out from the ancient commonwealth of Greece, which are the first, perhaps, we have any good account of. Thucydides, that grave and judicious historian, says

of them: "They were not sent out to be slaves, but to be the equals of those who remained behind;" and again, the Corinthians gave public notice "that the new colony was going to Epidamus, into which all that should enter should have equal and like privileges with those who stayed at home."

This was uniformly the condition of the Grecian colonies; they went out and settled new countries; they took such forms of government as themselves chose, though it generally nearly resembled that of the mother state, whether democratical or oligarchical. 'Tis true they were fond to acknowledge their original, and always confessed themselves under obligation to pay a kind of honorary respect to, and show a filial dependence on, the commonwealth from whence they sprung. Thucydides again tells us that the Corinthians complained of the Corcyrans, "from whom, though a colony of their own, they had received some contemptuous treatment; for they neither paid them the usual honor on their solemnities, nor began with the Corinthians in the distribution of the sacrifice which is always done by other colonies." From hence it is plain what kind of dependence the Greek colonies were in, and what sort of acknowledgment they owed to the mother state.

If we pass from the Grecian to the Roman colonies, we shall find them not less free; but this difference may be observed between them, that the Roman colonies did not, like the Grecian, become separate states, governed by different laws, but always remained a part of the mother state; all that were free of the colonies were always free of Rome. And Grotius gives us an opinion of the Roman King concerning the freedom of the colonies. King Tullus says, "For our part, we look upon it to be neither truth nor justice that the mother cities ought of necessity to rule over their colonies."

When we come down to the latter ages of the world, and consider the colonies planted in the three last centuries in America from several kingdoms in Europe, we shall find them, says Puffendorf, very different from the ancient colonies; and he gives us an instance in those of the Spaniards. Although it be confessed they fall greatly short of enjoying equal freedom with the ancient Greek and Roman ones, yet it will be truly said they enjoy equal freedom with their countrymen in Spain; but as they are all under the government of an absolute monarch, they have no reason to complain that one enjoys the liberty the other is deprived of. The French colonies will be found nearly in the same condition, and for the same reason, because their fellow-subjects of France have always lost their liberty. And the question is whether all colonies, as compared with one another, enjoy equal liberty, or whether all enjoy as much freedom as the inhabitants of the mother state; and this will hardly be denied in the case of the Spanish, French, and other modern foreign colonies.

By this it fully appears that colonies in general, both ancient and modern, have always enjoyed as much freedom as the mother state from which they went out; and will any one suppose the British colonies of America are an exception to this general rule? Colonies that came from a kingdom renowned for liberty; from the constitution founded on compact; from the people of all the sons of men the most tenacious of freedom; who left the delights of their native country, parted from their homes and all their conveniences, searched out and subdued a foreign country, with the most amazing travail and fortitude, to the infinite advantage and emolument of the mother state; that removed on a firm reliance of the solemn compact and real promise and grant that they and their successors should be free, should be partakers in all the privileges and advantages of the English constitution. If it were possible a doubt could yet remain in the most unbelieving mind that these British colonies are not every way justly and fully entitled to equal liberty and freedom with their fellow-subjects in Europe, we might show that the Parliament of Great Britain have always understood their rights in the same light.

By an act passed in the thirteenth year of the reign of his Majesty King George II., entitled, "An Act for Naturalizing Foreign Protestants, etc.," and by another act passed in the same reign, for

nearly the same purposes, by both of which it is enacted and ordained "That all foreign Protestants who inhabited, and resided for the space of seven years or more, in his Majesty's colonies in America," might, on the conditions therein mentioned, be naturalized, and thereupon should be "deemed, adjudged, and taken to be his Majesty's natural-born subjects of the kingdom of Great Britain, to all intents, constructions, and purposes, as if they, and every one of them, had been, or were, born within the same." No reasonable man will here suppose that Parliament intended, in those acts, to put foreigners who had been in the colonies only seven years in a better condition than those who had been born in them, or had removed from Britain thither, but only to put these foreigners on an equality with them; and to do this they were obliged to give them all the rights of natural-born subjects of Great Britain.

From what has been shown it will appear beyond a doubt that the British subjects in America have equal rights with those in Britain; that they do not hold those rights and privileges as granted them, but possess them as inherent and indefeasible.

And the British legislative and executive powers have considered the colonies as possessed of these rights, and have always, heretofore, in the most tender and parental manner, treated them as their dependent (although free) condition required. The protection promised on the part of the crown, which with cheerfulness and gratitude we acknowledge, hath at all times been given to the colonies. The dependence of the colonies to Great Britain hath been fully testified by a constant and ready obedience to all the commands of his present Majesty, and royal predecessors; both men and money having been raised in them at all times when called for, with as much alacrity and in as large proportion as hath been done in Great Britain, the ability of each considered. It must also be confessed with thankfulness that the first adventurers and their successors, for 130 years, have fully enjoyed all the freedom and immunities promised on their removal from England. But here the scene seems to be unhappily changing. The British ministry, whether induced by jealousy of the colonies, by false information, or by some alteration in the system of political motive, this we are sure of, the Parliament passed an act limiting, restricting, and burdening the trade of these colonies much more than had ever been done before, as also for greatly enlarging the power and jurisdiction of the courts of admiralty in the colonies, and likewise passed another act establishing certain stamp duties. These acts have occasioned great uneasiness among the British subjects on the continent of America. How much reason there is for it, we will endeavor, in the most modest and plain manner we can, to lay before the public.

In the first place, let it be considered that although each of the colonies hath a legislature within itself to take care of its interests and provide for its peace and internal government, yet there are many things of a more general nature, quite out of the reach of these particular legislatures, which it is necessary should be regulated, ordered, and governed. One of this kind is the commerce of the whole British Empire, taken collectively, and that of each kingdom and colony in it as it makes a part of that whole—indeed, everything that concerns the proper interest and fit government of the whole commonwealth, of keeping the peace, and subordination of all parts towards the whole and one among another, must be considered in this light. Among these general concerns, perhaps, money and paper credit, these good instruments of all commerce, will be found also to have a place. These, with all other matters of a greater nature, it is absolutely necessary should have a general power to direct them; some supreme and overruling authority with power to make laws and form regulations for the good of all, and to compel their execution and observance. It being necessary some such general power should exist somewhere, every man of the least knowledge of the British constitution will naturally be led to look for and find it in the Parliament of Great Britain: that grand and august legislative body must from the nature of its authority and the necessity of the thing be justly vested with this power. Hence it becomes the indispensable duty of every good and loyal

subject cheerfully to obey and patiently submit to all the acts, laws, orders, and regulations that may be made and passed by Parliament for directing and governing all these general matters.

Here it may be urged by many, and indeed with great appearance of reason, that the equity, justice, and beneficence of the British constitution will require that the separate kingdoms and distinct colonies, who are to obey and be governed by these general laws and regulations, ought to be represented in some way or other in Parliament, at least while these general matters are under consideration. Whether the colonies will ever be admitted to have representatives in Parliament—whether it be consistent with their distant and dependent state; whether, if it were admitted, it would be to their advantage—are questions we will pass by, and observe that these colonies ought in justice, and for the evident good of the commonwealth, to have notice of every new measure about to be pursued, and new act about to be passed, by which their rights, liberties, and interests may be affected; they ought to have such notice, that they may appear or be heard by their agents, by counsel, or written representation, or by some other equitable and effectual way.

The colonies are at so great a distance from England that the members of Parliament can generally have but little knowledge of their business, connections, and interests, but what is gained from the people who have been there; the most of those have so slight a knowledge themselves that the informations they can give are very little to be depended upon, though they may pretend to determine with confidence on matters far above their reach. All such informations are too uncertain to be depended upon in the transaction of business of so much consequence, and in which the interests of 2,000,000 free people are so deeply concerned. There is no kind of inconvenience or mischief can arise from the colonies having such notice, and being heard in the manner above mentioned; but, on the contrary, very great mischiefs have already happened to the colonies, and always must be expected, if they are not heard before things of such importance are determined concerning them.

Had the colonies been fully heard before the last act had been passed, no reasonable man can suppose it ever would have passed at all, in the manner it now stands. For what good reason can possibly be given for making a law to cramp the trade and interest of many of the colonies, and at the same time lessen in a prodigious manner the consumption of the British manufactures in them? These are certainly the effects this act must produce. The duty of 3*d.* per gallon on foreign molasses is well known to every man in the least acquainted with it to be much higher than that article can possibly bear, and therefore must operate as an absolute prohibition. This will put a total stop to the exportation of lumber, horses, flour, and fish to the French and Dutch sugar-colonies; and if any one supposes we may find a sufficient sale for these articles in the English West Indies, he verifies what was just now observed, that he wants true information. Putting an end to the importation of foreign molasses at the same time puts an end to all the costly distilleries in these colonies and to the rum trade with the coast of Africa, and throws it into the hands of the French. With the loss of the foreign molasses trade the cod-fishing in America must also be lost and thrown also into the hands of the French. That this is the real state of the whole business is not mere fancy; neither this nor any part of it is an exaggeration, but a sober and most melancholy truth.

View this duty of 3*d.* per gallon on foreign molasses, not in the light of a prohibition, but supposing the trade to continue and the duty to be paid. Heretofore hath been imported into the colony of Rhode Island only about 1,250,000 gallons annually; the duty on this quantity is £14,375 sterling, to be paid yearly by this little colony; a larger sum than was ever in it at any one time. This money is to be sent away, and never to return; yet the payment is to be repeated every year. Can this possibly be done? Can a new colony, compelled by necessity to purchase all its clothing, furniture, and utensils from England, to support the expenses of its own internal government, obliged by its duty to comply with every call from the crown, to raise money in emergencies; after all this, can every man in it pay

24*s.* a year for the duties of a single article only? There is surely no man in his right mind believes this possible. The charging foreign molasses with this high duty will not affect all the colonies equally, nor any other near so much as this of Rhode Island, whose trade depends more on foreign molasses and on distilleries than that of any other; this must show that raising money for the general services of the crown or colonies by such a duty will be extremely unequal, and therefore unjust. And, by taking either alternative, and by supposing, on the one hand, the foreign molasses trade is stopped, and with it the principal ability of the colonies to get money, but, on the other hand, that this trade is continued and that the colonies get money from it, but all their money is taken from them by paying their duty; can Britain be the gainer by this? Is it not the chosen interest of Britain to dispose of and be paid for her own manufactures? And doth she not find the greatest and best market for them in her own colonies? Will she find an advantage in disabling the colonies to continue their trade with her? Or can she possibly grow rich by their being made poor?

Ministers have great influence, and parliaments have great power: can either of them change the nature of things, stop our means of getting money, and yet expect us to purchase and pay for British manufactures? The genius of the people in these colonies is as little turned to manufacturing goods for their own use as is possible to suppose in any people whatsoever, yet necessity will compel them either to go naked in this cold country, or to make themselves something of clothing, if it be only of the skins of beasts.

By the same act of Parliament the exportation of all kinds of timber or lumber, the most natural product of these colonies, is greatly encumbered and uselessly embarrassed, and the shipping it to any port in Europe except Great Britain is prohibited. This must greatly affect the linen manufacture in Ireland, as that kingdom used to receive great quantities of flax-seed from America, many cargoes being made of that, and barrel-staves were sent thither every year; but as the staves can no longer be exported thither, the ships carrying flax-seed casks without the staves, which used to be intermixed among them, must lose one-half of their weight, which must prevent their continuing this trade, to the great injury of Ireland and of the plantations; and what advantage is to accrue to Great Britain by it must be told by those who can perceive the utility of this measure.

Enlarging the power and jurisdiction of the courts of vice-admiralty in the colonies is another part of the same act greatly and justly complained of. Courts of admiralty have long been there in most of the colonies, whose authority were circumscribed with moderate territorial jurisdictions, and whose courts have always done the business necessary to be brought before these courts for trial in the manner it ought to be done, and in a way only moderately expensive to the subjects; and if seizures were made, or informations exhibited, without reason or contrary to law, the informer or seizer was left to the justice of the common law, there to pay for his folly or suffer for his temerity.

But now this case is quite altered, and a custom-house officer may make a seizure in Georgia of goods ever so legally imported, and carry the trial to Halifax, at 1,500 miles' distance, and thither the owner must follow him to defend his property; and when he comes there, quite beyond the circle of his friends, acquaintance, and correspondence, among total strangers, he must there give bond, and must find sureties to be bound with him in a large sum before he shall be admitted to claim his own goods; when this is complied with, he hath a trial and his goods acquitted. If the judge can be prevailed upon (which it is very well known may too easily be done) to certify there was only probable cause for making the seizure, the unhappy owner may not maintain any action against the illegal seizure for damages, or obtain any satisfaction; but he may return to Georgia quite ruined and undone, in conformity to an act of Parliament. Such unbounded encouragement and protection given to informers must call to every one's remembrance Tacitus's account of the miserable condition of the Romans in the reign of Tiberius, their emperor, who let loose

and encouraged the informers of that age. Surely, if the colonies had been fully heard before this had been done, the liberties of the Americans would not have been so much disregarded.

The resolution that the House of Commons came into during the same session of Parliament, asserting their right to establish stamp duties and internal taxes, to be collected in the colonies without their own consent, hath much more, and for much more reason, alarmed the British subjects in America than anything that had ever been done before. These resolutions have been since carried into execution by an act of Parliament which the colonies do conceive is a violation of their long-enjoyed rights. For it must be confessed by all men that they who are taxed at pleasure by others cannot possibly have any property, can have nothing to be called their own; they who have no property can have no freedom, but are, indeed, reduced to the most abject slavery; are in a state far worse than countries conquered and made tributary, for these have only a fixed sum to pay, which they are left to raise among themselves, in the way that they may think most equal and easy; and, having paid the stipulated sum, the debt is discharged and what is left is their own. This is more tolerable than to be taxed at the will of others, without any bounds, without any stipulations or agreements, contrary to their consent and against their wills. If we are told that those who lay taxes upon the colonies are men of the highest character for wisdom, justice, and integrity, and, therefore, cannot be supposed to deal hardly, unjustly, or unequally by any; admitting and really believing that all this is true, it will make no alteration in the case; for one who is bound to obey the will of another is as really a slave, though he may have a good master, as if he had a bad one; and this is stronger in politic bodies than in natural ones, as the former have a perpetual succession, and remain the same; and although they may have a good master at one time, they may have a very bad one at another. And, indeed, if the people in America are to be taxed by the representatives of the people in Britain, their malady is an increasing evil that must always grow greater by time. Whatever burdens are laid upon the Americans will be that much taken off the Britons; and the doing this will soon be extremely popular, and those who are put up to be members of the House of Commons must obtain the votes of the people by promising to take taxes off them by making new levies on the Americans. This must most assuredly be the case, and it will not be in the power even of Parliament to prevent it; the people's private interests will be concerned, and will govern them; they will have such, and only such, representatives as will act agreeably to their interest; and these taxes laid on Americans will be always a part of the supply bill in which the other branches of the legislature can make no alteration; and, in truth, the subjects in the colonies will be taxed at the will and pleasure of their fellow-subjects in Britain. How equitable and how just this may be must be left to every impartial man to determine.

But it will be said that the moneys drawn from the colonies by duties and by taxes will be laid up and set apart to be used for their future defence. This will not at all alleviate the hardships, but serve only the more strongly to mark the servile state of the people. Free people have ever thought, and will think, that the money necessary for their defence lies safest in their own hands until it be wanted immediately for that purpose. To take the money of the Americans, which they want continually to use in their trade, and lay it up for their defence at 1,000 leagues' distance from them, hath not the greatest probability of friendship or of prudence.

It is not the judgment of free people only that money for defence is safest in their keeping, but it is also the opinion of the best and wisest kings and governors of mankind in every age of the world that the wealth of a state was most securely, as well as most profitably, deposited in the hands of their faithful subjects. Constantius, Emperor of the Romans, though an absolute prince, both practised and praised this method.

"Diocletian sent persons on purpose to reproach him with his neglect of the public and the poverty to which he was re-

duced by his own fault. Constantius heard these reproaches with patience; and having persuaded those who made them in Diocletian's name to stay a few days with him, he sent word to the most wealthy persons in the province that he wanted money, and that they had now an opportunity of showing whether or not they really loved their prince. Upon this notice every one strove who should be foremost in carrying to the exchequer all their gold, silver and valuable effects, so that in a short time Constantius, from being the poorest, became by far the most wealthy of all the four princes. He then invited the deputies of Diocletian to visit his treasury, desiring them to make a faithful report to their master of the state in which they should find it. They obeyed, and while they stood gazing upon the mighty heaps of gold and silver Constantius told them that the wealth which they beheld with astonishment had long since belonged to him, but that he had left it by way of deposition in the hands of his people, adding that the richest and surest treasure of the prince was the love of his subjects. The deputies were no sooner gone than the generous prince sent for those who had assisted him in his exigency, commended their zeal and returned to every one what they had so readily brought into his treasury."

We are not insensible that when liberty is in danger the liberty of complaining is dangerous; yet a man on a wreck was never denied the liberty of roaring as loud as he could, says Dean Swift. And we believe no good reason can be given why the colonies should not modestly and soberly inquire what right the Parliament of Great Britain have to tax them. We know that such inquiries have by one letter-writer been branded with the little epithet of "mushroom policy," and he intimates that if the colonies pretend to claim any privileges they will draw down the resentment of the Parliament on them. Is, then, the defence of liberty so contemptible, and pleading for just rights so dangerous? Can the guardians of liberty be thus ludicrous? Can the patrons of freedom be so jealous and so severe?

Should it be urged that the money expended by the mother-country for the defence and protection of America, and especially during the late war, must justly entitle her to some retaliation from the colonies, and that the stamp duties and taxes intended to be raised in them are only designed for the equitable purpose; if we are permitted to examine how far this may rightfully vest the Parliament with the power of taxing the colonies we shall find this claim to have no foundation. In many of the colonies, especially those in New England, which were planted, as is before observed, not at the charge of the crown or kingdom of England, but at the expense of the planters themselves, and were not only planted, but also defended against the savages and other enemies in long and cruel wars which continued for 100 years, almost without intermission, solely at their own charge; and in the year 1746, when the Duke d'Anville came out from France with the most formidable fleet that ever was in the American seas, enraged at these colonies for the loss of Louisburg the year before, and with orders to make an attack on them; even in this greatest exigence these colonies were left to the protection of Heaven and their own efforts. These colonies having thus planted themselves and removed all enemies from their borders, were in hopes to enjoy peace and recruit their state, much exhausted by these long struggles; but they were soon called upon to raise men and send them out to the defence of other colonies, and to make conquests for the crown; they dutifully obeyed the requisition, and with ardor entered into these services and continued in them until all encroachments were removed, and all Canada, and even Havana, conquered. They most cheerfully complied with every call of the crown; they rejoiced, yea, even exulted, in the prosperity of the British Empire. But these colonies whose bounds were fixed, and whose borders were before cleared of enemies by their own expense, reaped no sort of advantage by these conquests; they are not enlarged, have not gained a single acre, have no part in the Indian or interior trade; the immense tracts of land subdued, and no less immense and profitable commerce acquired, all belong to Great Britain, and not the least share or portion to these colonies, though thousands of their numbers have

lost their lives, and millions of their money have been expended in the purchase of them—for great part of which we are yet in debt, and from which we shall not in many years be able to extricate ourselves. Hard will be the fate, and cruel the destiny of these unhappy colonies, if the reward they are to receive for all this is the loss of their freedom; better for them Canada still remained French, yea, far more eligible that it should remain so, than that the price of its reduction should be their slavery.

If the colonies are not taxed by Parliament, are they therefore exempt from bearing their proper shares in the necessary burdens of government? This by no means follows. Do they not support a regular internal government in each colony as expensive to the people here as the internal government of Britain is to the people there? Have not the colonies here at all times, when called upon by the crown to raise money for the public service, done it as cheerfully as the Parliament have done on the like occasions? Is not this the most easy way of raising money in the colonies? What occasion then to distrust the colonies, what necessity to fall on the present mode to compel them to do what they have ever done freely? Are not the people in the colonies as loyal and dutiful subjects as any age or nation ever produced, and are they not as useful to the kingdom in this remote quarter of the world as their fellow-subjects are in Britain? The Parliament, it is confessed, have power to regulate the trade of the whole empire; and hath it not full power by this means to draw all the money and wealth of the colonies into the mother-country at pleasure? What motive, after all this, can remain to induce the Parliament to abridge the privileges and lessen the rights of the most loyal and dutiful subjects; subjects justly entitled to ample freedom, who have long enjoyed and not abused or forfeited their liberties, who have used them to their own advantage in dutiful subserviency to the orders and the interests of Great Britain? Why should the gentle current of tranquillity, that has so long run with peace through all the British states, and flowed with gentle joy and happiness in all her countries, be at last obstructed and turned out of its true course into unusual and winding channels, by which many of these colonies must be ruined, but none of them can possibly be made more rich or more happy?

Before we conclude it may be necessary to take notice of the vast difference there is between the raising money in a country by duties, taxes, or otherwise, and employing and laying out the money again in the same country; and raising the like sums of money by the like means and sending it away quite out of the country where it is raised. Where the former of these is the case, although the sums raised may be very great, yet that country may support itself under them; for as fast as the money is collected together is it scattered abroad, to be used in commerce and every kind of business, and money is not made scarcer by this means, but rather the contrary, as this continual circulation must have a tendency in some degree to prevent its being hoarded. But where the latter method is pursued the effect will be extremely different; for here, as fast as the money can be collected, it is immediately sent out of the country, never to return but by a tedious round of commerce, which at best must take up some time; here all trade and every kind of business depending upon it will grow dull and must languish more and more, until it comes to a final stop at last. If the money raised in Great Britain in the last three years of the war, and which exceeded £40,000,000 sterling, had been sent out of the kingdom, would not this have nearly ruined the trade of the nation in three years only? Think then what must be the condition of these miserable colonies when all the money proposed to be raised in them by high duties on the importation of divers kinds of goods, by the post-office, by stamp duties, and other taxes, is sent away quite as fast as it can be collected; and this is to be repeated continually! Is it possible for the colonies under these circumstances to support themselves, to have any money, any trade, or other business carried on in them? Certainly not; nor is there at present, or ever was, any country under heaven that did or possibly could support itself under such burdens.

We finally beg leave to assert that the first planters of these colonies were pious

Christians, were faithful subjects; who, with a fortitude and perseverance little known and less considered, settled these wild countries, by God's goodness and their own amazing labors, thereby adding a most valuable dependence to the crown of Great Britain; were ever dutifully subservient to her interests; they so taught their children that not one has been disaffected to this day, and all have honestly obeyed every royal command and cheerfully submitted to every constitutional law. They have as little inclination as they have ability to throw off their dependency; they have most carefully avoided every measure that might be offensive, and all such manufactures as were interdicted. Besides all this, they have risked their lives when they have been ordered, and furnished money whenever it has been called for; have never been either troublesome or expensive to the mother-country; have kept all due order, and have supported a regular government; they have maintained peace, and practised Christianity. And in all conditions, upon all occasions, they have always demeaned themselves as loyal, as dutiful subjects ought to do; and no kingdom or state or empire hath, or ever had, colonies more obedient, more serviceable, more profitable than these have ever been.

May the same Divine Goodness that guided the first planters, that protected the settlements, and inspired kings to be gracious, parliaments to be tender, ever preserve, ever protect, and support our present most gracious King; give great wisdom to his ministers and much understanding to his Parliament; perpetuate the sovereignty of the British constitution, and the filial dependency of all the colonies.

Hopkinson, Francis, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Sept. 21, 1737; graduated at Princeton in 1763, and in 1765 was admitted to the bar. His republican principles caused his removal from a lucrative office in New Jersey. He was a member of Congress in 1776–77, and was distinguished during the Revolution by political and satirical writings. His best known is *The Battle of the Kegs.* He was judge of admiralty for ten years —1779–89, and United States district judge from 1790 till his death. He died in Philadelphia May 9, 1791.

In January, 1778, while the channel of the Delaware River was nearly free of ice, some Whigs at Bordentown, N. J., sent floating down the stream some torpedoes in the form of kegs filled with gunpowder, and so arranged with machinery that on rubbing against an object they would explode. It was hoped that some of these torpedoes might touch a British war-vessel, explode and sink her. One of them, touching a piece of floating ice in front of the city, blew up, and created intense alarm. For twenty-four hours afterwards not a thing was seen floating on the bosom of the river without being fired at by musket or cannon. This event greatly amused the Americans, and Hopkinson wrote a satirical poem entitled the *Battle of the Kegs,* of which the following is a copy:

BATTLE OF THE KEGS.

Gallants attend, and hear a friend
Trill forth harmonious ditty;
Strange things I'll tell, which late befell
In Philadelphia city.

'Twas early day, as poets say,
Just when the sun was rising,
A soldier stood on log of wood,
And saw a thing surprising.

As in amaze he stood to gaze
(The truth can't be denied, sir),
He spied a score of kegs, or more,
Come floating down the tide, sir.

A sailor, too, in jerkin blue,
The strange appearance viewing,
First d—d his eyes, in great surprise,
Then said, "Some mischief's brewing.

"These kegs, I'm told, the rebels hold,
Pack'd up like pickled herring;
And they've come down t'attack the town
In this new way of ferry'ng."

The soldier flew, the sailor too,
And, scared almost to death, sir,
Wore out their shoes to spread the news,
And ran till out of breath, sir.

Now up and down, throughout the town,
Most frantic scenes were acted;
And some ran here, and others there,
Like men almost distracted.

Some "Fire!" cried, which some denied,
But said the earth had quaked;
And girls and boys, with hideous noise,
Ran through the streets half naked.

Sir William* he, snug as a flea,
Lay all this time a snoring;
Nor dream'd of harm as he lay warm
In bed with Mrs. L—ng.†

Now, in a fright, he starts upright,
Awaked by such a clatter;
He rubs both eyes and boldly cries,
"For God's sake, what's the matter?"

At his bedside he then espied
Sir Erskine,‡ at command, sir;
Upon one foot he had one boot,
And t'other in his hand, sir.

"Arise! arise!" Sir Erskine cries;
"The rebels—more's the pity—
Without a boat, are all afloat,
And ranged before the city.

"The motley crew, in vessels new,
With Satan for their guide, sir,
Pack'd up in bags, or wooden kegs,
Come driving down the tide, sir.

"Therefore prepare for bloody war;
These kegs must all be routed;
Or surely we despised shall be,
And British courage doubted."

The royal band now ready stand,
All ranged in dread array, sir,
With stomach stout to see it out,
And make a bloody day, sir.

The cannons roar from shore to shore,
The small-arms loud did rattle;
Since wars began I'm sure no man
E'er saw so strange a battle.

The rebel dales, the rebel vales,
With rebel trees surrounded,
The distant woods, the hills and floods,
With rebel echoes sounded.

The fish below swam to and fro,
Attack'd from every quarter;
Why sure (thought they), the devil's to pay
'Mong folks above the water.

The kegs, 'tis said, though strongly made
Of rebel staves and hoops, sir,
Could not oppose their powerful foes,
The conq'ring British troops, sir.

From morn to night these men of might
Display'd amazing courage.
And when the sun was fairly down,
Retired to sup their porridge.

A hundred men, with each a pen,
Or more, upon my word, sir,
It is most true, would be too few
Their valor to record, sir.

Such feats did they perform that day
Against these wicked kegs, sir,
That, years to come, if they get home,
They'll make their boasts and brags, sir.

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* Sir William Howe.

† The wife of a Boston refugee, who was then a commissary of prisoners in Philadelphia. He is represented by some as being second only to Cunningham in cruelty, while others speak of him as an honorable man.

‡ Sir William Erskine.

Hopkinson, JOSEPH, jurist; born in Philadelphia, Nov. 12, 1770; son of Francis; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania; became a lawyer of much repute; and was the leading counsel of Dr. Rush in his suit against Cobbett (see COBBETT, WILLIAM). He was also counsel for JUDGE SAMUEL CHASE (*q. v.*) in his impeachment trial. As a member of Congress (1816–20), he distinguished himself by his course on the tariff question, and by his opposition to a recharter of the United States Bank. In 1828 he was appointed judge of the United States district court of eastern Pennsylvania, an office which his father and grandfather had held. He was a leading member of the convention that revised the constitution of Pennsylvania in 1837. Mr. Hopkinson was vice-president of the American Philosophical Society. His best known literary production is HAIL, COLUMBIA (*q. v.*). He died in Philadelphia, Jan. 15, 1842.

Hopper, ISAAC TATEM, philanthropist; born in Gloucester county, N. J., Dec. 3, 1771; accepted the Quaker faith early in life, and later adhered to the doctrines promulgated by Elias Hicks, whose followers became known as Hicksites. As a member of the Pennsylvania Abolition Society he often protected the negro people of Philadelphia from the slave kidnappers who infested that city. Later he became widely known through his efforts for the reform of convicts, and lived to see an asylum established by his daughter, Mrs. Abby H. Gibbons, in behalf of these unfortunates, and named in his honor the "Isaac T. Hopper Home." He died in New York City, May 7, 1852.

Hoppin, JAMES MASON, educator; born in Providence, R. I., Jan. 17, 1820; graduated at Yale College in 1840, the Harvard Law School in 1842, the Union Theological Seminary in 1845, and at Andover Seminary; was ordained in 1850; pastor of a Congregational church in Salem, Mass., in 1850–59; professor of homiletics in Yale in 1861–79; of the history of art in 1879–99; and pastor of the College Church in

1861–63. His numerous publications include *Life of Rear-Admiral Andrew Hull Foote.*

Hornet, an American sloop-of-war, of eighteen guns rating and 480 tons burden; was conspicuous in the naval events of the War of 1812–15. After the capture of the *Java* (see CONSTITUTION), Bainbridge left the *Hornet,* Commander James Lawrence, to blockade the *Bonne Citoyenne,* an English vessel laden with treasure, in the harbor of San Salvador, on the coast of Brazil. The *Hornet* was driven away by a large British vessel, and on Feb. 24, 1813, she fell in with the British brig *Peacock,* eighteen guns, Captain Peake, off the mouth of the Demerara River. The *Hornet,* gaining a good position, with quick and incessant firing, came down upon the *Peacock,* closed upon her, and in this advantageous position poured in her shot with so much vigor for fifteen minutes that her antagonist not only struck her colors, but raised the union in a position that indicated a cry of distress. Very soon afterwards the main-mast of the *Peacock* fell and went over her side. She was sinking when officers from the *Hornet* went on board of her. Her guns were thrown overboard, the holes made by balls were plugged, and every exertion was made to keep her afloat until her wounded could be removed, but

HORNET AND PEACOCK (From a contemporary caricature).

in vain. She rapidly filled and went to the bottom of the sea, taking down with her nine British and three American seamen. Lawrence sailed immediately for the United States, and the story of the exploit of the *Hornet* created a profound sensation. A Halifax newspaper said: "It will not do for our vessels to fight those of the Americans single-handed; they are a dead nip." Public honors were awarded to Lawrence, and Congress voted him thanks and a gold medal. The corporation of New York resolved to present him with the freedom of the city, with a piece of plate bearing appropriate devices and inscriptions, and to give a public dinner to the officers and crew of the *Hornet.* The banquet was given at Washington Hall, on May 4, 1813, only a few weeks before Lawrence was slain. Art and song made contributions to the praise of Lawrence, and the pencil caricature made fun of the vanquished British, as seen in the annexed sketch, which was published soon after the victory. A silver medal was given to each of the other officers of the *Hornet.* The officers of the *Peacock* sent a public letter of thanks to Lawrence for his generous treatment of the prisoners. See LAWRENCE, JAMES.

When Decatur departed with the *President* (see PRESIDENT) he ordered the remainder of his squadron to rendezvous at the port of Tristan d'Acunha, the principal of a group of islands in the South Atlantic, in lat. 37° S. and 12° W. from Washington. They followed the *President* to sea (Jan. 22, 1815), not knowing her fate, and the *Hornet,* Capt. James Biddle, and *Tom Bowline* arrived at the rendezvous together at the middle of March. On the 23d they entered the port, and the *Hornet* was about to cast anchor, when a strange sail was discovered at the windward. Biddle immediately went seaward to reconnoitre. The stranger came down before the wind, and a little before two o'clock was within musket-shot distance from the *Hornet,* displayed English colors, and fired a gun. The challenge was accepted by the *Hornet,* and for fifteen minutes a sharp cannonade was kept up. Then the British vessel ran down the *Hornet* with the intention of boarding her. The vessels became entangled, and the opportunity for boarding was lost by the refusal of the men of the stranger to undertake it. Biddle's men, on the contrary, were eager for a hand-to-hand fight, but, as his ad-

JACOBUS LAWRENCE DULCE ET DECORUM EST PRO PATRIA MORI.
MANSUETUD. MAJ. QUAM VICTORIA.
INTER HORNET NAV. AMERI.
ET PEACOCK NAV. ANG.
DIE XXIV. FEB.
MDCCCXIII.

MEDAL AWARDED TO CAPTAIN LAWRENCE BY CONGRESS.

vantage lay with his guns, he would not allow it. His broadsides terribly raked his antagonist, and in a few minutes she was surrendered. Springing upon the taffrail to inquire if she had actually surrendered, Biddle was fired upon by two British marines and wounded in the neck. His assassins were instantly slain by bullets fired from the *Hornet*. The latter became disentangled, and wore to give her antagonist a broadside, when twenty men on the stranger threw up their hands and asked for quarter. The conquered vessel had struck her colors after a battle of twenty-three minutes. She was the brig *Penguin*, eighteen guns, Captain Dickenson. She mounted nineteen carriage guns, besides guns in her top. Her complement of men was 132, and her size and weight of metal was the same as those of the *Hornet*. The latter lost one man killed and ten wounded. The loss of the *Penguin* was unknown. Among the slain were her commander and boatswain. After taking from her all that was valuable, Captain Biddle scuttled her (March 25), and she went to the bottom of the South Atlantic Ocean. Special honors were bestowed upon Captain Biddle. When he arrived in New York a public dinner was given to him, and his native town (Philadelphia) gave him a beautiful service of silver-plate. Congress thanked him in the name of the republic, and voted him a gold medal. Converting the *Tom Bowline* into a cartel ship, he sent his prisoners in her to Rio de Janeiro. See BIDDLE, JAMES.

When sailing towards the Indian seas on the morning of April 27, 1815, the *Hornet* and *Peacock* were close together, and Captain Warrington, of the latter, signalled to Biddle, of the former, that a strange vessel was seen in the distance. Both sloops started in chase, with a light wind, and gained on the stranger. The *Peacock* was ahead, and on the afternoon of the 28th displayed caution in her movements, for she had discovered that the stranger was a heavy British line-of-battle-ship, and that she was about to turn upon and chase the American vessels. Then the *Peacock* and *Hornet* spread their sails for flight. The latter was in greater peril, for she was a slower sailer than her consort. The huge Englishman was gaining upon her. Biddle began to lighten her, and during the entire night of the 28th and early morning of the 29th the chase became exceedingly interesting. At dawn the British vessel was within gunshot distance of the *Hornet*, on her lee quarter. At seven o'clock her pursuer threw out British colors and a rear-admiral's flag, and began firing. Onward the *Hornet* sped, casting overboard anchors, shot, cables, spars, boats, many heavy articles on deck and below, and all of her guns but one. At noon the pursuer was within a mile

of her, and again commenced firing. Onward the *Hornet* still sped, her commander having resolved to save his ship at all hazards. By consummate seamanship and prudence he did so, and, with her single gun, and without boat or anchor, the *Hornet* arrived at New York, June 9, 1815. The vessel that had pursued her was the British ship *Cornwallis*, seventy-four guns, on her way to the East Indies.

Horsford, CORNELIA, archæologist; born in Cambridge, Mass., Sept. 25, 1861; daughter of Eben Norton Horsford; received a private school education in Boston and Cambridge; and in 1893 engaged in archæological researches. She sent out expeditions to Iceland in 1895, and to the British Isles in 1895, 1896, and 1897; is a member of numerous associations; and author of *Graves of the Northmen; Greenland and Vinland;* and *Vinland and Its Ruins.*

Horsford, EBEN NORTON, educator; born in Moscow, N. Y., July 27, 1818; graduated at the Rensselaer Institute in 1838; connected with the Albany Female College, Newark (Del.) College, and Harvard University. He resigned his office in Harvard in 1863 to go into business. He is the author of *Indian Names of Boston; On the Landfall of John Cabot in 1497; Zeisberger's Indian Dictionary; The Discovery of America by the Northmen; The Problem of the Northmen; The Discovery of Norumbega; The Defences of Norumbega,* etc. He died in Cambridge, Mass., Jan. 1, 1893.

Horsmanden, DANIEL, jurist; born in Gouldhurst, Kent, England, in 1691. In May, 1733, he was called to the New York City council; afterwards was recorder, chief-justice, and president of the council. He published *The New York Conspiracy, or the History of the Negro Plot;* and *Letters to Governor Clinton.*

Hortop, JOB. Owing to a scarcity of food, Sir John Hawkins, in October, 1568, put 100 men ashore on the Mexican coast, and abandoned them to their fate. All but two were killed by the Indians, or died of starvation. One of the two—David Ingram — made his way on foot from Mexico to the St. John's River, New Brunswick, where he was rescued by a French vessel. The other—Job Hortop —made his way to the city of Mexico, and eventually reached England in 1590.

Hoskins, NATHAN, author; born in Withersfield, Vt., April 27, 1795; graduated at Dartmouth in 1820; taught in St. Albans, Vt., in 1821–22; afterwards practised law in Vergennes, Vt., and edited *The Vermont Aurora.* His publications include *History of Vermont; Notes on the West;* and *The Bennington Court Controversy and Strictures on Civil Liberty in the United States.* He died in Williamstown, Mass., April 21, 1869.

Hosmer, HARRIET G., sculptor; born in Watertown, Mass., Oct. 9, 1830; began modelling in clay at an early age; and, having finished her education in school, she took a course of anatomical instruction in a medical college at St. Louis, Mo. She made a bust of *Hesper,* in marble, in 1852, which attracted much attention, and her father (a physician) placed her under the tuition of Mr. Gibson, sculptor, at Rome. Her best-known work, *Beatrice Cenci,* was executed for the public library at St. Louis. She soon became a distinguished and popular artist. One of her best productions, finished in 1859, is *Zenobia in Chains.* She makes Rome her permanent abiding place.

Hosmer, HENRY CUYLER, author; born in Avon, N. Y., May 25, 1814; graduated at the University of Vermont in 1841; practised law in Avon till 1854, when he was appointed clerk in the New York custom-house. His works include *The Fall of Tecumseh,* a drama, and *The Pioneers of Western New York.* He died in Avon, N. Y., May 23, 1877.

Hosmer, JAMES KENDALL, author; born in Northfield, Mass., Jan. 29, 1834; graduated at Harvard College in 1855; served in the Civil War in the 52d Massachusetts Volunteers; was professor in Antioch College in 1866–72; Professor of English and German Literature in the University of Missouri in 1872–74; held the same chair in Washington University, St. Louis, Mo., in 1874–92; and became librarian of the Minneapolis Public Library in 1892. His publications include *The Color Guard,* and the *Life of Samuel Adams* (in the *American Statesmen Series*).

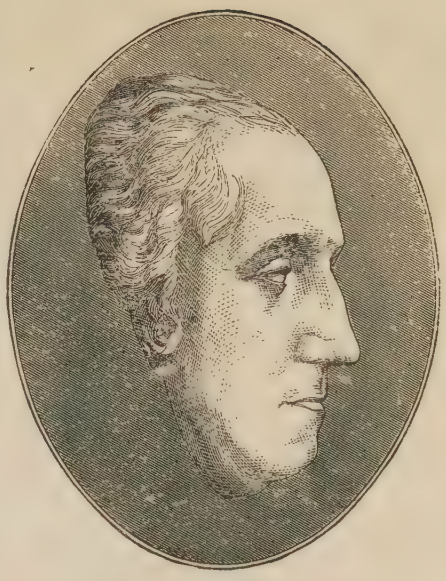
Hotchkin, SAMUEL FITCH, clergyman; born in Sanquoit, N. Y., April 2, 1833; graduated at Trinity College in 1856, and at the General Theological Seminary in 1860; held pastorates in Delaware, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania; and is author of *Early Clergy of Pennsylvania and Delaware; Rural Pennsylvania; Ancient and Modern Germantown,* etc.

Hotchkiss, BENJAMIN BERKELY, inventor; born in Watertown, Conn., Oct. 11, 1826; became a machinist. His first invention was the Hotchkiss magazine gun, which was adopted by the United States government. He also invented the machine gun which is used in the rigging of vessels; and made improvements in heavy ordnance and projectiles. He died in Paris, France, Feb. 14, 1885.

Hotchkiss, JAMES HARVEY, clergyman; born in Cornwall, Conn., Feb. 23, 1781; graduated at Williams College in 1800, and was pastor in Prattsburg in 1809–30. He published *History of the Churches of Western New York.* He died in Prattsburg, N. Y., Sept. 21, 1851.

Hotchkiss, WILLIAM H.; born in Whitehall, N. Y., in 1864; graduated at Hamilton College in 1886; admitted to the bar in 1888. Mr. Hotchkiss drafted the present New York primary election law of 1899. In July, 1899, he was chosen chairman of the executive committee of the National Association of Referees in Bankruptcy, and, as such, made an investigation into the operation of the law, which resulted in an elaborate report, published in March, 1900, and in the Ray amendatory bill now pending in Congress. See article, BANKRUPTCY LAWS, of which he is the author.

Houdon, JEAN ANTOINE, sculptor; born in Versailles, France, March 20, 1740; passed ten years at Rome in the study of the antiques. In 1785 he was employed to make a marble statue of Washington for the State of Virginia, which now stands in the rotunda of the State capitol at Richmond. He visited Mount Vernon and made a cast of the living face only, and, after returning to France, modelled the entire full length of the patriot. That original cast is at Mount Vernon. It is the true model of Washington's face, and should be the standard portrait. He died in Paris, July 15, 1828.



HOUDON'S MASK OF WASHINGTON.

Hough, FRANKLIN BENJAMIN, author; born in Martinsburg, N. Y., July 20, 1820; graduated at Union College in 1843, and at the Cleveland Medical College in 1848; taught school for several years; and practised medicine in Somerville, N. Y., in 1848–52 and in Albany in 1854–60. During the Civil War he enlisted as regimental surgeon. His publications include *History of St. Lawrence and Franklin Counties, N. Y.; History of Duryea's Campaign; Washingtoniana, or Memorials of the Death of George Washington; The Siege of Charleston, May 12, 1780,* etc. He died in Lowville, N. Y., June 6, 1885.

House of Representatives. See REPRESENTATIVES.

Houston, DAVID FRANKLIN, educator; born in Monroe, N. C., Feb. 7, 1866; graduated at South Carolina College in 1887; became tutor of Ancient Languages in the South Carolina College; was superintendent of Spartanburg, S. C., city schools in 1888–91; appointed Adjunct Professor of Political Science in the University of Texas in 1894. He is author of *A Critical Study of Nullification in South Carolina.*

Houston, SAMUEL, statesman; born near Lexington, Va., March 2, 1793. His

family went to Tennessee, in his early days, where the Cherokee Indians adopted him as one of their nation. He served with distinction under Jackson in the Creek War, in 1813–14, and was severely wounded. Leaving the army in 1818, he became a lawyer, and was a member of Congress from 1823 to 1827. He was governor of Tennessee in 1827, and afterwards lived among the Cherokees, as their legal protector from fraud. Emigrating to Texas, he took a leading part in its public affairs. Instrumental in achieving its independence (1836), he was elected its first

SAMUEL HOUSTON.

President that year; also from 1841 to 1844. He favored the annexation of Texas to the United States, and was elected its first United States Senator in 1846. In that station he remained until 1859, when he was chosen governor of Texas. He opposed the secession and insurrectionary movements in that State with all his might, and retired from office rather than take the oath of allegiance to the Southern Confederacy. He died in Huntsville, Tex., July 25, 1863.

As before stated, Houston was governor of Texas when the Confederates, in convention, declared its withdrawal from the Union. The convention officially informed the governor of the act, and that they had instructed their appointed delegates to ask for the admission of Texas into the Southern Confederacy. To this communication Houston promptly replied, in substance, that the convention had transcended its delegated powers; that its acts were usurpations; and that he should consider it his duty to act as governor until the legislature of the State should take action in the matter, regardless of all alleged changes in the political relations of the State. This reply produced great excitement. Believing the governor was about to assemble the militia of the State to resist the convention, that body passed an ordinance (March 8, 1861) which defied his authority. Then the venerable Houston, in a stirring address to the people, recounted his services and his trials, and complained bitterly of the "usurpations" of the convention, which, he said, "had transferred the people, like sheep from the shambles, from the Union to an unlawful league." Loving Texas too well to do aught that should kindle civil war upon its soil, he said he should not attempt, under the circumstances, to exercise his authority as governor, nor would he take the oath of allegiance to the Southern Confederacy. He took no part in public life after this act.

Hovey, Horace Carter, clergyman; born in Rob Roy, Ind., in 1833; graduated at Wabash College in 1853, and at the Lane Theological Seminary in 1857; held pastorates in New Albany, Peoria, Minneapolis, New Haven, Bridgeport, and Newburyport. He is author of *Origin and Annals of Old South of Newburyport;* and a contributor to the *Encyclopædia Britannica.*

Howard, Benjamin Chew, lawyer; born in Baltimore county, Md., Nov. 5, 1791; graduated at Princeton College in 1809; practised law in Baltimore; was a member of Congress in 1829–33 and 1835–39; reporter of the United States Supreme Court in 1843–62. He published *Reports of Cases in the Supreme Court of the United States from 1843 till 1855.* He died in Baltimore, Md., March 6, 1872.

Howard, George Elliot, educator; born in Saratoga, N. Y., Oct. 1, 1849; graduated at the University of Nebraska in 1876; Professor of History there in 1879–91; secretary of the Nebraska Historical Society in 1885–91; and became head of the historical department of Leland Stanford, Jr., University in 1891.

He is author of *An Introduction to the Constitutional History of the United States*, and numerous historical articles in magazines.

Howard, JOHN EAGER, military officer; born in Baltimore county, Md., June 4, 1752; was a captain in Hull's regiment

JOHN EAGER HOWARD.

at the battle of White Plains; became a major in the Continental army in 1777; and was distinguished in the battle of Germantown. He was in the battle of MONMOUTH (*q. v.*), and was made a lieutenant-colonel. In 1780 he was detailed, with the Maryland and Delaware troops, to serve in the Southern Department. In Gates's defeat, near Camden, he participated, and he led the Continental infantry in the battle of the Cowpens, at one time holding in his hands the swords of seven surrendered British officers. For his conduct there Congress voted him a silver medal. It was the first occasion during the Revolutionary War in which the bayonet was effectively used. He was distinguished in the battles of Guildford, Hobkirk's Hill, and Eutaw Springs, and was severely wounded in the latter engagement. After the war he married a daughter of Chief-Justice Chew, of Pennsylvania He was a member of Congress (1787–88), and governor of Maryland from 1789 to 1792. Colonel Howard was a member of the Maryland Senate in 1795, and United States Senator from 1796 to 1803. He was named by Washington for one of his brigadier-generals in 1798. When Baltimore was threatened in 1814, Howard placed himself at the head of aged men armed for its defence. He died in Baltimore county, Oct. 12, 1827.

Howard, JOSEPH, journalist; born in Brooklyn, N. Y., June 3, 1833; educated in the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. In 1860 he engaged in newspaper work, and has been editor, special writer, and correspondent for the New York *Times, Herald, Tribune, World, Sun,* and *Recorder;* the Boston *Herald* and *Globe;* the Philadelphia *Times* and *Press;* the Chicago *News, Tribune,* and *Times-Herald;* the San Francisco *Chronicle,* and other papers. In 1868–76 he was editor and proprietor of the New York *Star.* In 1895 he became president of the New York Press Club, and in 1897 president of the International League of Press Clubs. He has published a Life *of Henry Ward Beecher.*

MEDAL AWARDED COLONEL HOWARD.

In 1864 he created an unusual sensation by preparing an alleged proclamation, to which were attached the names

of the President of the United States and the Secretary of State, and in which various defeats and disasters in the Union army were narrated, a day of fasting and prayer was recommended, and a call was made for 500,000 additional troops. Copies of this alleged proclamation were distributed among the newspaper offices of New York at an hour of the night when the "forms" were all made up and the responsible editors had either left for home or were about leaving. Nearly every one of the newspapers who received a copy had a suspicion of its genuineness. Two, however, the *World* and the *Journal of Commerce*, both of which had been antagonizing the national government, without awaiting verification, published the document in full in their issue of the following morning. As soon as the news reached Washington, orders were issued for the suppression of the two newspapers and the arrest of the author of the document. Mr. Howard was soon afterwards apprehended, and was taken to Fort Lafayette as a prisoner of state. He declared, in his defence, that the alleged proclamation was intended as a joke, and it was only through the influence of the late Henry Ward Beecher and other strong supporters of the administration that he was saved from severe punishment.

Howard, Oliver Otis, military officer; born in Leeds, Me., Nov. 8, 1830; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1850, and at West Point in 1854; entered the ordnance corps, and became instructor in mathematics at West Point in 1857. He took command of the 3d Maine Regiment in June, 1861, and commanded a brigade at the battle of Bull Run. In September he was made a brigadier-general. At the battle of Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines (*q. v.*), he lost his right arm. After the battle of Antietam (*q. v.*) he commanded Sumner's corps; and while Hooker led the Army of the Potomac, in 1863, he was in command of the 11th Corps. He was conspicuous at Gettysburg (*q. v.*), Lookout Valley, and Missionary Ridge; also in the relief of Knoxville, late in the year. In 1864 he was in command of the Army of the Tennessee, and was in all of the battles in the Atlanta campaign. The right of Sherman's army, on its march to the sea, was commanded by him, as well as in the march through the Carolinas afterwards. In December, 1864, he was made a brigadier-general in the regular army, and was afterwards brevetted major-general. At the conclusion of the war General Howard was made commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau, and held the office until the bureau was closed, in June, 1872. Trustee and president of Howard University, he resigned in April, 1873. In 1877 he commanded the expedition against the

OLIVER OTIS HOWARD, DURING THE CIVIL WAR.

Nez Percés Indians; in 1878 the campaigns against the Bannocks and Piutes; in 1880–82 was superintendent of the Military Academy; in 1886 was promoted to major-general; and, Nov. 8, 1894, was retired.

Howard Association, a voluntary organization which distinguished itself for courage in caring for the sick of Southern cities during yellow-fever epidemics, 1878–79. The members nursed 24,000 patients in New Orleans alone between Aug. 17 and Oct. 26, 1868, and expended in relief $380,185.83. The association made no distinction among sufferers of race or religion, and judiciously dispensed funds contributed by the charitable throughout the country.

Howe, Elias, inventor; born in Spencer, Mass., July 9, 1819; engaged in manufacturing cotton-mill machinery at

Lowell in 1835 and invented the sewing-machine, producing his first machine in May, 1845, and patenting it in September, 1846. Public indifference, violation of his rights, and extreme poverty tended to discourage him, but did not. In 1854 he was enabled to establish his legal claim to priority of invention. Then a flood-tide of prosperity flowed in, and by the time his patent expired, in September, 1867, he had realized about $2,000,000. At the Paris exposition that year he received a gold medal and the cross of the Legion of Honor. He had contributed largely to support the government during the Civil War, and, until his health failed, did duty as a private soldier in a Connecticut regiment. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., Oct. 3, 1867.

Howe, FREDERIC CLEMSON, lawyer; born in Meadville, Pa., Nov. 21, 1867; graduated at Allegheny College, Pa., in 1889, and at Johns Hopkins University in 1892; studied at Halle, Germany, at the University of Maryland Law School, and the New York Law School. He was Professor of Law in the Cleveland College of Law, and Lecturer on Taxation in the Western Reserve University. He is author of *Taxation and Taxes in the United States, under the Internal Revenue System, 1791–1895.*

Howe, GEORGE AUGUSTUS, VISCOUNT, military officer; born in England in 1724; succeeded to his father's title when he was eleven years of age. In 1757 he was commissioned colonel of the 60th (Royal American) Regiment. Later in the year he was made colonel of the 55th Foot, and soon afterwards brigadier-general, and sent to America with General Abercrombie in the spring of 1758. He led the right wing of the army in the expedition against Ticonderoga. At the head of an advanced party, he met a detachment of French troops in the forest between the foot of Lake George and Ticonderoga, and in a skirmish with them was killed at the outset on July 8, 1758. His body was taken back to the head of the lake, and thence to Albany, by Maj. Philip Schuyler, where it was entombed in the family vault of the Schuylers. There it remained several years. The remains were finally placed in a leaden coffin and deposited under the chancel of St. Peter's Church, in Albany. When his remains were taken from the vault his hair, which had been cut short as an example for his soldiers, had grown to long, flowing and beautiful locks. The province of Massachusetts erected a monument to his memory in Westminster Abbey. Lord Howe was elder brother of Richard and William Howe. His fall was regarded as an ill omen in the army, and produced almost universal consternation and languor. Mante says: "With him the soul of the expedition seemed to expire." Abercrombie returned with his troops to Albany.

Howe, HENRY, historian; born in New Haven, Conn., Oct. 11, 1816. He published his first book, *Eminent Mechanics,* in 1839; canvassed New York State in the following year with JOHN W. BARBER (*q. v.*) for material for their *Historical Collections of New York.* The other publications of Messrs. Barber and Howe include *Our Whole Country; Historical Collections of Ohio; Historical Collections of Virginia; Historical Collections of New Jersey; The Great West; Adventures and Achievements of Americans; Outline History of New Haven;* and *Times of the Rebellion in the West.*

Howe, JULIA WARD, author; born in New York, May 27, 1819; educated privately; married in 1843 SAMUEL GRIDLEY HOWE (*q. v.*), with whom prior to the Civil War she conducted the Boston *Commonwealth,* an anti-slavery paper. After the war she became actively inter-

JULIA WARD HOWE.

ested in the cause of peace, woman suffrage, prison reform, and other movements. For many years she was a Unitarian preacher and a popular lecturer. She wrote the *Battle Hymn of the Republic* (see below); *Passion Flowers; Words for the Hour; A Trip to Cuba; The World's Own; From the Oak to the Olive; Later Lyrics; Sex and Education; Memoir of S. G. Howe; Life of Margaret Fuller; Modern Society; Is Polite Society Polite? From Sunset Ridge,* etc.

BATTLE HYMN OF THE REPUBLIC.

Mine eye hath seen the glory of the coming of the Lord:
He is trampling out the vintage where the grapes of wrath are stored;
He hath loosed the fateful lightning of his terrible swift sword;
His truth is marching on.

I have seen him in the watch-fires of a hundred circling camps;
They have builded him an altar in the evening dews and damps;
I can read his righteous sentence by the dim and flaring lamps,
His day is marching on.

I have read a fiery gospel writ in rows of burnished steel:
"As ye deal with my contemners, so with you my grace shall deal;"
Let the Hero, born of woman, crush the serpent with his heel,
Since God is marching on.

He has sounded forth the trumpet that shall never call retreat;
He is sifting out the hearts of men before his judgment seat;
Oh, be swift, my soul, to answer him! be jubilant, my feet!
Our God is marching on.

In the beauty of the lilies Christ was born across the sea,
With a glory in his bosom that transfigures you and me;
As he died to make men holy, let us die to make men free,
While God is marching on.

Howe, Mark Antony de Wolfe, editor; born in Bristol, R. I., Aug. 28, 1864; graduated at Lehigh University in 1886, and at Harvard University in 1887. He is author of *The Memory of Lincoln;* and *Phillips Brooks* (in the *Beacon Biographies Series).*

Howe, Richard, Earl, naval officer; born in England, March 19, 1725; was educated at Westminster and Eton; and succeeded to the Irish viscounty and the family estate on the death of his brother, George Augustus Howe, killed near Ticonderoga in 1758. In 1739 he was a midshipman in Anson's fleet, and was made post-captain for gallantry in 1745. He entered Parliament in 1757, and in 1765 was made treasurer of the British navy. In October, 1770, he was promoted to rear-

RICHARD HOWE.

admiral of the blue, and in 1776 was sent to command the British fleet on the American station, charged with a commission, jointly with his brother, William Howe, to make peace with or war upon the Americans. They failed to secure peace, and made war. After leaving the Delaware with his fleet, in 1778, he had an encounter off Rhode Island with a French fleet, under the Count d'Estaing, when he disappeared from the American waters. In 1782 he was made admiral of the blue, and created an English viscount; and in September of that year he relieved Gibraltar, and received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament. In 1787 he was made admiral of the white, and in August the next year was raised to an earldom. Because of a complete victory over the French, which he obtained in 1794, he was rewarded with a gold medal, the Order of the Garter, and the commission of admiral of the fleet, which he resigned in 1797. His last service in the royal navy was persuading mutineers at Spithead to return to duty. He died in England, Aug. 5, 1799. In St. Paul's Cathedral a fine monument was erected to the memory of Admiral Howe.

Howe, Robert, military officer; born in Brunswick county, N. C., in 1732; was in the legislature in 1773; was one of the ear-

liest and most uncompromising of the patriots of the Cape Fear region, and was honored with an exception, together with Cornelius Harnett, when royal clemency was offered to the rebels by Sir Henry Clinton, in 1776. He was appointed colonel of the 1st North Carolina Regiment, and with his command went early into the field of Revolutionary strife. In December, 1775, he joined Woodford at Norfolk, in opposition to Lord Dunmore and his motley army. For his gallantry during this campaign, Congress, on Feb. 29, 1776, appointed him one of five brigadier-generals in the Continental army, and ordered him to Virginia. In the spring of 1776, British spite towards General Howe was exhibited by Sir Henry Clinton, who sent Cornwallis, with 900 men, to ravage his plantation near old Brunswick village. He was placed in chief command of the Southern troops in 1778, and was unsuccessful in an expedition against Florida and in the defence of Savannah. His conduct was censured, but without just cause. Among others whose voices were raised against him was Christopher Gadsden, of Charleston. Howe required him to deny or retract. Gadsden would do neither, and a duel ensued. They met at Cannonsburg, and all the damage either sustained was

ROBERT HOWE.

a scratch upon the ear of Gadsden by Howe's ball. Howe died Nov. 12, 1785.

In retaliation for incursions from Florida (*q. v.*), General Howe, at the head of 2,000 Americans, mostly militia of South Carolina and Georgia, attempted the capture of St. Augustine. He met with very little opposition before he reached the St. Mary River, where the British had erected a fort, called Tonyn, in compliment to the governor of the province. On the approach of Howe they destroyed the fort; and, after some slight skirmishing, retreated towards St. Augustine. But the Americans were driven back from Florida by a fever which swept away nearly one-fourth of their number, and rendered their retreat absolutely necessary.

Howe, Samuel Gridley, philanthropist; born in Boston, Mass., Nov. 10, 1801; graduated at Brown University in 1821; became a physician; and sympathizing with the Greeks in their struggle for independence, went there in 1824, and served as a surgeon in the army and in other capacities until 1830. In 1831 he became interested in the establishment of an institution for the blind in Boston. The Perkins Institute was the result. It was put in operation in 1832, with Dr. Howe at its head. In that institution, through the unwearied efforts of Dr. Howe, Laura Bridgman, a deaf, dumb, and blind girl, became educated. Dr. Howe, while in Europe, preparatory to opening the institution, engaged a little in politics, and was in a Prussian prison about six weeks. He was ever active in every good work. He went to Greece again in 1867, as bearer of supplies to the Cretans in their struggle with the Turks. In 1871 he was one of the commissioners sent by the government of the United States to Santo Domingo to report upon the annexation of that island to the American Republic. He died in Boston, June 6, 1876.

Howe, Timothy Otis, legislator; born in Liverpool, Me., Feb. 24, 1816; admitted to the bar in 1839, and began practice in Readfield; was elected to the legislature in 1840. Subsequently he removed to Wisconsin. He was circuit judge in 1850–56; then resumed practice. He was elected to the United States Senate as a Republican in 1861, and served till 1879; was a delegate to the International Monetary Conference in Paris in 1881; and was appointed Postmaster-General by President Arthur in December of the latter year. He died in Kenosha, Wis., March 25, 1883.

Howe, WILLIAM, military officer; born in England, Aug. 10, 1729; was, by illegitimate descent, uncle of George III. He entered the army as cornet of dragoons, and distinguished himself under Wolfe at Quebec. Made colonel of infantry in 1764, he rose to the rank of major-general in 1772. In May, 1775, he arrived at Boston with reinforcements for General Gage. At that time there was much reluctance among British officers to serve against the American colonists. The Earl of Effingham and the eldest son of William Pitt resigned their commissions rather than engage in the unnatural service; and General Oglethorpe, the senior general of the royal army, declined the proffered service of commander-in-chief of the British army in America. After Gage's recall, it was offered to General Howe, and accepted. He was in chief command in the battle of Bunker (Breed's) Hill, June 17, 1775, and when forced to leave Boston, March, 1776, went with his troops to Halifax. In August, the same year, he landed a large number of troops on Staten Island, near New York. With them the Americans were defeated in battle on Long Island, Aug. 27, 1776, and for this he was soon after knighted. He took possession of New York City, Sept. 15, and was defeated in battle at WHITE PLAINS (*q. v.*), Oct. 28. On Nov. 16 he captured Fort Washington, on Manhattan Island, and in July, 1777, sailed in the fleet of his brother, Admiral Howe, for Chesapeake Bay. Marching for Philadelphia, he defeated Washington in battle on Brandywine Creek, Sept. 11, 1777, and entered Philadelphia on Sept. 26. Howe repulsed an attack made by Washington, Oct. 4, at Germantown, and spent the ensuing winter in Philadelphia. In May, 1778, he was succeeded by Sir Henry Clinton, and returned to England. Sir William was made lieutenant-general of ordnance in 1782, and in 1786 colonel of dragoons and full general. In 1795 he was appointed governor of Berwick, and on the death of his brother, in 1799, succeeded to his Irish viscounty. Howe was governor of Plymouth and a privy-councillor at the time of his death, July 12, 1814.

SIR WILLIAM HOWE.

Howe, WILLIAM WIRT, lawyer; born in Canandaigua, N. Y., in 1833; served in the Union army during the Civil War;

studied law and practised in New Orleans, La.; and became judge of the chief criminal court of New Orleans, and associate justice of the Supreme Court of Louisiana. He is author of *Municipal History of New Orleans;* and *Studies in the Civil Law.*

Howell, GEORGE ROGERS, clergyman; born in Southampton, N. Y., June 15, 1833; graduated at Yale College in 1854, and at the Princeton Theological Seminary in 1864. His publications include *The Early History of Southampton, L. I., with Genealogies;* and papers, including *Linguistic Discussions; The Open Polar Sea; Heraldry in America;* etc. He died in Albany, N. Y., April 5, 1899.

Howell, RICHARD, military officer; born in Newark, Del., in 1753; was one of the number indicted for participating in firing the cargo of tea at Greenwich, N. J., in November, 1774; promoted major in 1776; governor of New Jersey in 1794–1801. He wrote a poem to welcome Washington to Trenton, N. J., when the latter passed through that city on his way to New York to be inaugurated President. He died in Trenton, N. J., April 28, 1802.

Howell, ROBERT BOYTE CRAWFORD, clergyman; born in Wayne county, N. C., March 10, 1801; graduated at Columbian College, Washington, in 1826; ordained in the Baptist Church, Jan. 27, 1827; pastor at Nashville, Tenn., for many years. During the Civil War he was a strong advocate of the Confederacy. His publications include *The Early Baptists of Virginia,* etc. He died in Nashville, Tenn., April 5, 1868.

Howells, WILLIAM DEAN, author; born in Martin Ferry, O., March 1, 1837. His education was largely acquired in Ohio newspaper offices, where he worked as compositor, correspondent, and editor. In 1861–65 he was United States consul in Venice, and while there studied Italian language and literature; in 1865–66 was an editorial writer on *The Nation,* and in 1866–72 its assistant editor; in 1872–81 editor of the *Atlantic Monthly;* in 1886–91 an editorial contributor to *Harper's Magazine,* and later for a short time editor of the *Cosmopolitan Magazine.* In 1900 he was called to occupy the *Editor's Easy Chair* in *Harper's Monthly Magazine,* which had been vacant since the death of George William Curtis in 1892. He is the author of *Life of Abraham Lincoln; Venetian Life; Italian Journeys; Life of Rutherford B. Hayes; The Undiscovered Country; A Woman's Reason; Christmas Every Day; The Day of Their Wedding; An Open-Eyed Conspiracy; Stories of Ohio; Ragged Lady; Their Silver Wedding Journey,* and many others. He was also the editor of *Choice Biographies, with Essays,* and *Library of Universal Adventure.*

WILLIAM DEAN HOWELLS.

Howland, WESTON, inventor; born about 1816; was a cabin-boy on a merchant-ship early in life, and rose to the command of a vessel. He afterwards left the sea and became a ship chandler and commission merchant, and remained in this business till 1860, when he began the manufacture of oil. He was the first in the United States to discover a method of refining petroleum. Mr. Howland was a member of the New Bedford board of aldermen in 1866, and collector of the port of New Bedford in 1886–90. He died in Fairhaven, Mass., May 19, 1901.

Hoyt, ALBERT HARRISON, author; born in Sandwich, N. H., Dec. 6, 1826; graduated at Wesleyan College in 1850, and became a lawyer; paymaster in the army in 1862–66; received the brevet of lieutenant-colonel in 1865; was editor of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* in 1868–76. His publications include *Necrology of the New England Colleges; Capt. Francis Goelet's Journal of his Visit to Boston, Salem, etc., in 1745–50; Letters of Sir William Pepperrell, Bart.; History of the New*

England Historical and Genealogical Register; Notes, Historical and Bibliographical, on the Laws of New Hampshire; The Name Columbia, etc.

Hoyt, EPAPHRAS, historian; born in Deerfield, Mass., Dec. 31, 1765; was major-general of the Massachusetts militia. His publications include *Treatise on the Military Art; Military Instructions; Cavalry Discipline; Antiquarian Researches,* etc. He died in Deerfield, Mass., Feb. 8, 1850.

Hoyt, HENRY MARTYN, governor; born in Kingston, Pa., June 8, 1830; graduated at Williams College in 1849; became a lawyer in 1853; served in the Civil War; promoted lieutenant-colonel; was taken prisoner in January, 1863, while making a night assault on Fort Johnson, and was imprisoned at Macon, Ga. At the close of the war he was brevetted brigadier-general; was governor of Pennsylvania in 1878–83. He was the author of *Controversy between Connecticut and Pennsylvania;* and *Protection vs. Free Trade.* He died in Wilkesbarre, Pa., Dec. 1, 1892.

Hubbard, LUCIUS FREDERICK, governor; born in Troy, N. Y., Jan. 26, 1836; received an academic education; settled in Minnesota in 1857; entered the National army in 1861; served in numerous battles with marked distinction; received the brevet of brigadier-general; was governor of Minnesota in 1882–87. He wrote a paper on Minnesota published in 1886 in the *North American Review.*

Hubbard, SAMUEL DICKINSON, legislator; born in Middletown, Conn., Aug. 10, 1799; graduated at Yale College in 1819; inherited large wealth and became a manufacturer; was a member of Congress in 1845–49 and United States Postmaster-General in 1852–53. He died in Middletown, Conn., Oct. 8, 1855.

Hubbard, WILLIAM, clergyman; born in England in 1621; came to America in 1630; graduated at Harvard College in 1642, and later was ordained in the Congregational Church; was pastor in Ipswich, Mass., in 1665–1703. His publications include *History of New England; A Narrative of Troubles with the Indians,* etc. He died in Ipswich, Mass., Sept. 14, 1704.

Hubbardton, BATTLE AT. Generals Fraser and Riedesel, with British and German troops, began a pursuit of the Americans as soon as their flight from Ticonderoga was discovered. They overtook their rear-guard, about 1,200 strong, July 7, 1777, at Hubbardton, Vt. The main body of St. Clair's army had marched towards Castleton, leaving the rear-guard, under Col. Seth Warner, to gather up stragglers. While waiting their arrival, Warner was struck by the van of the pursuers, and a sharp engagement took place. Colonel Francis, of New Hampshire, was killed. The Americans were dispersed, and fled, excepting 200 who were made prisoners. The pursuers lost almost as many in killed and wounded, and soon gave up the chase. St. Clair, with about 200 men, made his way through the woods to Fort Edward. The Americans also lost 120 in killed and wounded. The British captured about 200 stand of arms.

Huddy, JOSEPH. See ASGILL, SIR C.

Hudson, CHARLES, author; born in Marlboro, Mass., Nov. 14, 1795; became a Universalist clergyman in 1819, and was pastor at Westminster, Mass., for twenty years; was a member of Congress in 1841–49. He was the author of *History of Westminster; History of Lexington; Genealogical Register of Lexington Families; Congressional Reports on Protection Policy; Capital Punishment; The Northeastern Boundary,* etc. He also prepared numerous congressional reports. He died in Lexington, Mass., May 4, 1881.

Hudson, FREDERIC, journalist; born in Quincy, Mass., in 1819; settled in New York City in 1836; and was connected with the *Herald* for thirty years, being managing editor when he retired. He published *Journalism in the United States from 1690 till 1872.* He died in Concord, Mass., Oct. 21, 1875.

Hudson, HENRY, navigator; born about the middle of the sixteenth century; was first employed by English merchants, in 1607, to search for a northeastern passage to India. He sailed from Gravesend on May 1, 1607, in a small vessel manned by only ten men and a boy—the latter his son. In lat. 80° N., on the eastern coast of Greenland, he was stopped by the ice-pack. He fought the ice-floes and

storms for many weeks, and then returned to England in September, bearing only the fruit of the discovery of the island of Spitzbergen. Neither he nor his employers were disheartened, and late in April, 1608, he sailed again, expecting to make a passage between Spitzbergen and Nova Zembla. Again he was compelled by the ice to turn back. His employers were now discouraged, and Hudson went over to Holland and offered his services to the Dutch East India Company, and they were accepted. On April 6, 1609, he sailed from Amsterdam in the *Half Moon*, a stanch vessel of 90 tons, and steered for Nova Zembla. Again the ice-barrier forbade his entrance to the polar seas. Determined not to return fruitless to Amsterdam, he sailed around the southern shores of Greenland, into the beaten track of searchers after a northwest passage. Again he was repulsed by the ice. Sailing southward, he discovered the American continent off the coast of Maine, and in Casco Bay he repaired his storm-shattered vessel. He then sailed southward as far as the Cape of Virginia, touching at Cape Cod on the way. Returning, he discovered Delaware Bay, and early in September he entered Raritan Bay, south of Staten Island, and afterwards entered the (present) harbor of New York. Treating the Indians unkindly, they were hostile, and one of his seamen was killed by them, who attacked a boat's crew in canoes. From the north flowed a large river into New York Bay. Believing it would afford a northwest passage, he sailed up the stream, and was

HENRY HUDSON.

THE HALF MOON IN CHESAPEAKE BAY.

not undeceived until he met fresh water in the Highlands. He kept on in his ship as far as the site of Albany, and in small boats several miles farther. Returning to the sea, he followed the coast southward as far as Chesapeake Bay, and then returned to England and told the story of his discoveries. The unworthy monarch on England's throne, jealous of the advantage which the Dutch might derive from Hudson's discoveries, detained him as an English subject; but the navigator outwitted his sovereign, for he had sent an account of his voyage to his Amsterdam employers by a trusty hand.

In 1610 he sailed from England on his fourth voyage, this time in the northwest. He discovered the bay that bears his name in the far north of the western hemisphere, and intended to winter there; but a majority of his crew became mutinous and compelled him to sail homeward. On the way his son and seven of his men who had remained faithful to him were seized by the mutineers, and, with the commander, were placed in an open shallop and abandoned on the icy sea, where, of course, they soon perished. The names of the wretched passengers in that little vessel, left to perish, were Henry Hudson, John Hudson, Arnold Ludlow, Shadrach Fanna, Philip Staffe, Thomas Woodhouse, Adam Moore, Henry King, and Michael Bute. The compassionate carpenter of the ship furnished them with a fowling-piece, some powder and shot, some meal and an iron pot to cook it in, and a few other things. They were towed by the ship out of the ice-floes to the open sea, and then cut adrift.

The fate of the castaways was revealed by one of the mutineers. England sent an expedition in search of them, but no trace could be found.

Hudson Bay Company, THE. In 1666 Captain Gillam was sent from England in a ship to search for a northwest passage to India through Hudson Bay. He sailed into Baffin Bay, but was turned back at lat. 75° N. by the ice-pack. He then entered Hudson Bay, and sailed to the southern end of it, where, at the mouth of a river which he named Rupert, he built a fort which he named Charles, and laid the foundations of a fur-trade with the natives. Two years afterwards the Hudson Bay Company was chartered. The King gave to Prince Rupert, and several lords, knights, and merchants associated with him, a charter, under the title of the Governor and Company of Adventurers of England trading into Hudson's Bay. The charter ceded to the company the whole trade of the waters within the entrance to Hudson Strait and of the adjacent territories. The original sum invested by the company was a little more than $50,000. No trade in the world was so profitable as that engaged in by the Hudson Bay Company. It was said that at one time the proprietors of the stock gained about 2,000 per cent. in one year.

Hudson, PORT. See PORT HUDSON.

HUDSON RIVER, DISCOVERY OF THE

Hudson River, DISCOVERY OF THE. The following narrative is from "The Third Voyage of Master Henry Hudson, toward Nova Zembla, and at his Returne, his Passing from Farre Islands to Newfound Land, and along to Fortie-foure Degrees and Ten Minutes, and thence to Cape Cod, and so to Thirtie-three Degrees; and along the Coast to the Northward, to Fortie-two Degrees and an Halfe, and up the River Neere to Fortie-three Degrees," written by Robert Juet:

The *first of September* [1609], faire weather, the wind variable betweene east and south; we steered away north northwest. At noone we found our height to bee 39 degrees, 3 minutes. Wee had soundings thirtie, twentie-seven, twentie-foure, and twentie-two fathomes, as wee went to the northward. At sixe of the clocke wee had one and twentie fathoms. And all the third watch, till twelve of the clocke at mid-night, we had sounding one and twentie, two and twentie, eighteene, two and twentie, eighteene, and two and twentie fathoms, and went sixe leagues neere hand north north-west.

The *second*, in the morning, close weather, the winde at south in the morn-

ing; from twelve untill two of the clocke we steered north north-west, and had sounding one and twentie fathoms; and in running one glasse we had but sixteene fathoms, then seventeene, and so shoalder and shoalder untill it came to twelve fathoms. We saw a great fire, but could not see the land; then we came to ten fathoms, whereupon we brought our tackes aboord, and stood to the eastward east south-east, foure glasses. Then the sunne arose, and wee steered away north againe, and saw the land from the west by north to the north-west by north, all like broken islands, and our soundings from the land. At five of the clocke we anchored, being little winde, and rode in eight fathoms water; the night was faire. This night I found the land to hall the compasse 8 degrees. For to the northward off us we saw high hils. For the day before we found not above 2 degrees of variation. This is a very good land to fall with, and a pleasant land to see.

The *third*, the morning mystie, untill ten of the clocke; then it cleered, and the wind came to the south south-east, so wee weighed and stood to the northward. The land is very pleasant and high, and bold to fall withall. At three of the

THE HALF MOON IN THE HUDSON.

were eleven and ten fathoms. Then wee looft in for the shoare, and faire by the shoare we had seven fathoms. The course along the land we found to be north-east by north. From the land which we had first sight of, untill we came to a great lake of water, as wee could judge it to bee, being drowned land, which made it to rise like islands, which was in length ten leagues. The mouth of that land hath many shoalds, and the sea breaketh on them as it is cast out of the mouth of it. And from that lake or bay the land lyeth north by east, and wee had a great streame out of the bay; and from thence our sounding was ten fathoms two leagues clock in the after-noone, wee came to three great rivers. So we stood along to the northmost, thinking to have gone into it, but we found it to have a very shoald barre before it, for we had but ten foot water. Then we cast about to the southward, and found two fathoms, three fathoms, and three and a quarter, till we came to the souther side of them; then we had five and sixe fathoms, and anchored. So wee sent in our boate to sound, and they found no lesse water then foure, five, sixe, and seven fathoms, and returned in an hour and a halfe. So wee weighed and went in, and rode in five fathoms, oze ground, and saw many

salmons, and mullets, and rayes, very great. The height is 40 degrees, 30 minutes.

The *fourth*, in the morning, as soone as the day was light, wee saw that it was good riding farther up. So we sent our boate to sound, and found that it was a very good harbour, and foure and five fathomes, two cables length from the shoare. Then we weighed and went in with our ship. Then our boate went on land with our net to fish, and caught ten great mullets, of a foote and a halfe long a peece, and a ray as great as foure men could hale into the ship. So wee trimmed our boate and rode still all day. At night the wind blew hard at the north-west, and our anchor came home, and wee drove on shoare, but tooke no hurt, thanked bee God, for the ground is soft sand and oze. This day the people of the countrey came aboord of us, seeming very glad of our comming, and brought greene tabacco, and gave us of it for knives and beads. They goe in deere skins loose, well dressed. They have yellow copper. They desire cloathes, and are very civill. They have great store of maize, or Indian wheate, whereof they make good bread. The countrey is full of great and tall oake.

The *fifth*, in the morning, as soone as the day was light, the wind ceased and the flood came. So we heaved off our ship againe into five fathoms water, and sent our boate to sound the bay, and we found that there was three fathoms hard by the souther shoare. Our men went on land there, and saw great store of men, women, and children, who gave them tabacco at their comming on land. So they went up into the woods, and saw great store of very goodly oakes and some currants. For one of them came aboord and brought some dryed, and gave me some, which were sweet and good. This day many of the people came aboard, some in mantles of feathers, and some in skinnes of divers sorts of good furres. Some women also came to us with hempe. They had red copper tabacco pipes, and other things of copper they did weare about their neckes. At night they went on land againe, so wee rode very quiet but durst not trust them.

The *sixth*, in the morning, was faire weather, and our master sent John Colman, with foure other men in our boate, over to the north-side to sound the other river, being foure leagues from us. They found by the way shoald water, two fathoms; but at the north of the river eighteen, and twentie fathoms, and very good riding for ships; and a narrow river to the westward, betweene two ilands. The lands, they told us, were as pleasant with grasse and flowers and goodly trees as ever they had seene, and very sweet smells came from them. So they went in two leagues and saw an open sea, and returned; and as they came backe, they were set upon by two canoes, the one having twelve, the other fourteene men. The night came on, and it began to rayne, so that their match went out; and they had one man slaine in the fight, which was an Englishman, named John Colman, with an arrow shot into his throat, and two more hurt. It grew so darke that they could not find the ship that night, but labored to and fro on their oars. They had so great a streame, that their grapnell would not hold them.

The *seventh*, was faire, and by ten of the clocke they returned aboord the ship, and brought our dead man with them, whom we carried on land and buryed, and named the point after his name, Colmans Point. Then we hoysed in our boate, and raised her side with waste boords for defence of our men. So we rode still all night, having good regard to our watch.

The *eighth*, was very faire weather, wee rode still very quietly. The people came aboord us, and brought tabacco and Indian wheat to exchange for knives and beades, and offered us no violence. So we fitting up our boate did marke them, to see if they would make any shew of the death of our man; which they did not.

The *ninth*, faire weather. In the morning, two great canoes came aboord full of men; the one with their bowes and arrowes, and the other in shew of buying of knives to betray us; but we perceived their intent. Wee tooke two of them to have kept them, and put red coates on them, and would not suffer the other to come neere us. So they went on land, and two other came aboord in a canoe; we tooke the one and let the other goe; but hee which wee had taken, got up and leapt

over-boord. Then wee weighed and went off into the channell of the river, and anchored there all night.

The *tenth*, faire weather, we rode still till twelve of the clocke. Then we weighed and went over, and found it shoald all the middle of the river, for wee could finde but two fathoms and a halfe and three fathomes for the space of a league; then wee came to three fathomes and foure fathomes, and so to seven fathomes, and anchored, and rode all night in soft ozie ground. The banke is sand.

The *eleventh* was faire and very hot weather. At one of the clocke in the afternoone wee weighed and went into the river, the wind at south south-west, little winde. Our soundings were seven, sixe, five, sixe, seven, eight, nine, ten, twelve, thirteene, and fourteene fathomes. Then it shoalded againe, and came to five fathomes. Then wee anchored, and saw that it was a very good harbour for all windes, and rode all night. The people of the country came aboord of us, making shew of love, and gave us tabacco and Indian wheat, and departed for that night; but we durst not trust them.

The *twelfth*, very faire and hot. In the after-noone, at two of the clocke, wee weighed, the winde being variable betweene the north and the north-west. So we turned into the river two leagues and anchored. This morning, at our first rode in the river, there came eight and twentie canoes full of men, women and children to betray us: but we saw their intent, and suffered none of them to come aboord of us. At twelve of the clocke they departed. They brought with them oysters and beanes, whereof wee bought some. They have great tabacco pipes of yellow copper, and pots of earth to dresse their meate in. It floweth south-east by south within.

The *thirteenth*, faire weather, the wind northerly. At seven of the clocke in the morning, as the floud came we weighed, and turned foure miles into the river. The tide being done wee anchored. Then there came foure canoes aboord: but we suffered none of them to come into our ship. They brought great store of very good oysters aboord, which we bought for trifles. In the night I set the variation of the compasse, and found it to be 13 degrees. In the after-noone we weighed, and turned in with the floud, two leagues and a halfe further, and anchored all night; and had five fathoms soft ozie ground; and had an high point of land, which shewed out to us, bearing north by east five leagues off us.

The *fourteenth*, in the morning, being very faire weather, the wind south-east, we sayled up the river twelve leagues, and had five fathoms, and five fathoms and a quarter lesse; and came to a streight betweene two points, and had eight, nine, and ten fathoms; and it trended north-east by north, one league; and we had twelve, thirteene, and fourteene fathomes. The river is a mile broad: there is very high land on both sides. Then we went up north-west, a league and an halfe deepe water. Then north-east by north, five miles; then north-west by north, two leagues, and anchored. The land grew very high and mountainous. The river is full of fish.

The *fifteenth*, in the morning, was misty, until the sunne arose: then it cleered. So wee weighed with the wind at south, and ran up into the river twentie leagues, passing by high mountaines. Wee had a very good depth, as sixe, seven, eight, nine, ten, twelve, and thirteene fathomes, and great store of salmons in the river. This morning our two savages got out of a port and swam away. After we were under sayle, they called to us in scorne. At night we came to other mountaines, which lie from the rivers side. There wee found very loving people, and very old men: where wee were well used. Our boat went to fish, and caught great store of very good fish.

The *sixteenth*, faire and very hot weather. In the morning our boat went againe to fishing, but could catch but few, by reason their canoes had beene there all night. This morning the people came aboord, and brought us eares of Indian corne, and pompions, and tabacco: which wee bought for trifles. Wee rode still all day, and filled fresh water; at night wee weighed and went two leagues higher, and had shoald water: so wee anchored till day.

The *seventeenth*, faire sun-shining weather, and very hot. In the morning, as soone as the sun was up, we set sayle,

and ran up sixe leagues higher, and found shoalds in the middle of the channell, and small ilands, but seven fathoms water on both sides. Toward night we borrowed so neere the shoare, that we grounded: so we layed out our small anchor, and heaved off againe. Then we borrowed on the banke in the channell, and came aground againe; while the floud ran we heaved off againe, and anchored all night.

The *eighteenth*, in the morning, was faire weather, and we rode still. In the after-noone our masters mate went on land with an old savage, a governor of the countrey; who carried him to his house, and made him good cheere. The *nineteenth*, was faire and hot weather: at the floud, being neere eleven of the clocke, wee weighed, and ran higher up two leagues above the shoalds, and had no lesse water then five fathoms; we anchored, and rode in eight fathomes. The people of the countrie came flocking aboord, and brought us grapes and pompions, which wee bought for trifles. And many brought us bevers skinnes and otters skinnes, which wee bought for beades, knives, and hatchets. So we rode there all night.

The *twentieth*, in the morning, was faire weather. Our masters mate with foure men went up with our boat to sound the river, and found two leagues above us but two fathomes water, and the channell very narrow; and above that place, seven or eight fathomes. Toward night they returned: and we rode still all night. The *one and twentieth* was faire weather, and the wind all southerly: we determined yet once more to go farther up into the river, to trie what depth and breadth it did beare; but much people resorted aboord, so wee went not this day. Our carpenter went on land, and made a fore-yard. And our master and his mate determined to trie some of the chiefe men of the countrey, whether they had any treacherie in them. So they tooke them downe into the cabin, and gave them so much wine and *aqua vitæ*, that they were all merrie: and one of them had his wife with them, which sate so modestly, as any of our countrey women would doe in a strange place. In the ende one of them was drunke, which had been aboord of our ship all the time that we had beene there: and that was strange to them; for they could not tell how to take it. The canoes and folke went all on shoare, but some of them came againe, and brought stropes of beades, some had sixe, seven, eight, nine, ten; and gave him. So he slept all night quietly.

The *two and twentieth* was faire weather: in the morning our masters mate and foure more of the companie went up with our boat to sound the river higher up. The people of the countrey came not aboord till noone: but when they came, and saw the savages well, they were glad. So at three of the clocke in the afternoone they came aboord, and brought tabacco, and more beades, and gave them to our master, and made an oration, and shewed him all the countrey round about. Then they sent one of their companie on land, who presently returned, and brought a great platter full of venison dressed by themselves; and they caused him to eate with them: then they made him reverence and departed, all save the old man that lay aboord. This night, at ten of the clocke, our boat returned in a showre of raine from sounding of the river; and found it to bee at an end for shipping to goe in. For they had beene up eight or nine leagues, and found but seven foot water, and unconstant soundings.

The *three and twentieth*, faire weather. At twelve of the clocke wee weighed, and went downe two leagues to a shoald that had two channels, one on the one side, and another on the other, and had little wind, whereby the tyde layed us upon it. So there wee sate on ground the space of an houre till the floud came. Then wee had a little gale of wind at the west. So wee got our ship into deepe water, and rode all night very well.

The *foure and twentieth* was faire weather: the winde at the north-west, wee weighed, and went downe the river seven or eight leagues; and at halfe ebbe wee came on ground on a banke of oze in the middle of the river, and sate there till the floud. Then wee went on land, and gathered good store of chest-nuts. At ten of the clocke wee came off into deepe water, and anchored.

The *five and twentieth* was faire weather, and the wind at south a stiffe gale. We rode still, and went on land to walke on the west side of the river, and

found good ground for corne and other garden herbs, with great store of goodly oakes, and walnut-trees, and chest-nut trees, ewe trees, and trees of sweet wood in great abundance, and great store of slate for houses, and other good stones.

The *sixe and twentieth* was faire weather, and the wind at south a stiffe gale; wee rode still. In the morning our carpenter went on land, with our masters mate and foure more of our companie, to cut wood. This morning, two canoes came up the river from the place where we first found loving people, and in one of them was the old man that had lyen aboord of us at the other place. He brought another old man with him, which brought more stropes of beades and gave them to our master, and shewed him all the countrey there about as though it were at his command. So he made the two old men dine with him, and the old mans wife: for they brought two old women, and two young maidens of the age of sixteene or seventeene yeares with them, who behaved themselves very modestly. Our master gave one of the old men a knife, and they gave him and us tabacco. And at one of the clocke they departed downe the river, making signes that wee should come downe to them; for wee were within two leagues of the place where they dwelt.

The *seven and twentieth*, in the morning, was faire weather, but much wind at the north; we weighed and set our fore top-sayle, and our ship would not flat, but ran on the ozie banke at half ebbe. Wee layed out anchor to heave her off, but could not. So wee sate from halfe ebbe to halfe floud: then wee set our fore-sayle and mayne top-sail, and got downe sixe leagues. The old man came aboord, and would have had us anchor, and goe on land to eate with him: but the wind being faire, we would not yeeld to his request; so he left us, being very sorrowfull for our departure. At five of the clocke in the afternoone, the wind came to the south south-west. So wee made a boord or two, and anchored in fourteen fathomes water. Then our boat went on shoare to fish right against the ship. Our masters mate and boatswaine, and three more of the companie, went on land to fish, but could not finde a good place. They tooke four or five and twentie mullets, breames, bases, and barbils; and returned in an houre. We rode still all night.

The *eight and twentieth*, being faire weather, as soon as the day was light, wee weighed at halfe ebbe, and turned downe two leagues belowe water; for the streame doth runne the last quarter ebbe: then we anchored till high water. At three of the clocke in the after-noone we weighed, and turned downe three leagues, untill it was darke: then wee anchored.

The *nine and twentieth* was drie close weather; the wind at south, and south and by west; we weighed early in the morning, and turned downe three leagues by a lowe water, and anchored at the lower end of the long reach: for it is sixe leagues long. Then there came certaine Indians in a canoe to us, but would not come aboord. After dinner there came the canoe with other men, whereoff three came aboord us. At three of the clocke in the after-noone wee weighed, as soone as the ebbe came, and turned downe to the edge of the mountaines, or the northermost of the mountaines, and anchored: because the high land hath many points, and a narrow channel, and hath manie eddie winds. So we rode quietly all night in seven fathoms water.

The *thirtieth* was faire weather, and the wind at south-east, a stiffe gale betweene the mountaynes. We rode still the afternoone. The people of the countrey came aboord us and brought some small skinnes with them, which we bought for knives and trifles. This is a very pleasant place to build a towne on. The road is very neere, and very good for all windes, save an east north-east wind. The mountaynes look as if some metall or minerall were in them. For the trees that grow on them were all blasted, and some of them barren, with few or no trees on them. The people brought a stone aboord like to an emery (a stone used by glasiers to cut glasse), it would cut iron or steele: yet being bruised small, and water put to it, it made a color like blacke lead glistering: it is also good for painters colours. At three of the clocke they departed, and we rode still all night.

The *first of October*, faire weather, the wind variable betweene the west and the north. In the morning we weighed at seven of the clocke with the ebbe, and

got downe below the mountaynes, which was seven leagues. Then it fell calme and the floud was come, and wee anchored at twelve of the clocke. The people of the mountaynes came aboord us, wondering at our ship and weapons. We bought some small skinnes of them for trifles. This afternoone, one canoe kept hanging under our sterne with one man in it, which we could not keepe from thence, who got up by our rudder to the cabin window, and stole out my pillow, and two shirts, and two bandeleeres. Our master mate shot at him, and strooke him on the brest, and killed him. Whereupon all the rest fled away, some in their canoes, and so leapt out of them into the water. We manned our boat, and got our things againe. Then one of them that swamme got hold of our boat, thinking to overthrow it. But our cooke tooke a sword, and cut off one of his hands, and he was drowned. By this time the ebbe was come, and we weighed and got downe two leagues: by that time it was darke. So we anchored in foure fathomes water, and rode well.

The *second*, faire weather. At break of day wee weighed, the winde being at north-west, and got downe seven leagues; then the floud was come strong, so we anchored. Then came one of the savages that swamme away from us at our going up the river with many other, thinking to betray us. But wee perceived their intent, and suffered none of them to enter our ship. Whereupon two canoes full of men, with their bowes and arrows shot at us after our sterne: in recompence whereof we discharged sixe muskets, and killed two or three of them. Then above an hundred of them came to a point of land to shoot at us. There I shot a falcon at them, and killed two of them: whereupon the rest fled into the woods. Yet they manned off another canoe with nine or ten men, which came to meet us. So I shot at it also a falcon, and shot it through, and killed one of them. Then our men with their muskets killed three or foure more of them. So they went their way: within a while after wee got downe two leagues beyond that place, and anchored in the bay, cleere from all danger of them on the other side of the river, where we saw a very good piece of ground: and hard by it there was a cliffe, that looked of the colour of a white greene, as though it were either copper or silver myne: and I thinke it to be one of them, by the trees that grow upon it. For they be all burned, and the other places are greene as grasse; it is on that side of the river that is called Manna-hata. There we saw no people to trouble us: and rode quietly all night; but had much wind and raine.

The *third*, was very stormie; the wind at east north-east. In the morning, in a gust of wind and raine, our anchor came home, and we drove on ground, but it was ozie. Then as we were about to heave out an anchor, the wind came to the north north-west, and drove us off againe. Then we shot an anchor, and let it fall in foure fathomes water, and weighed the other. Wee had much winde and raine, with thicke weather; so we roade still all night.

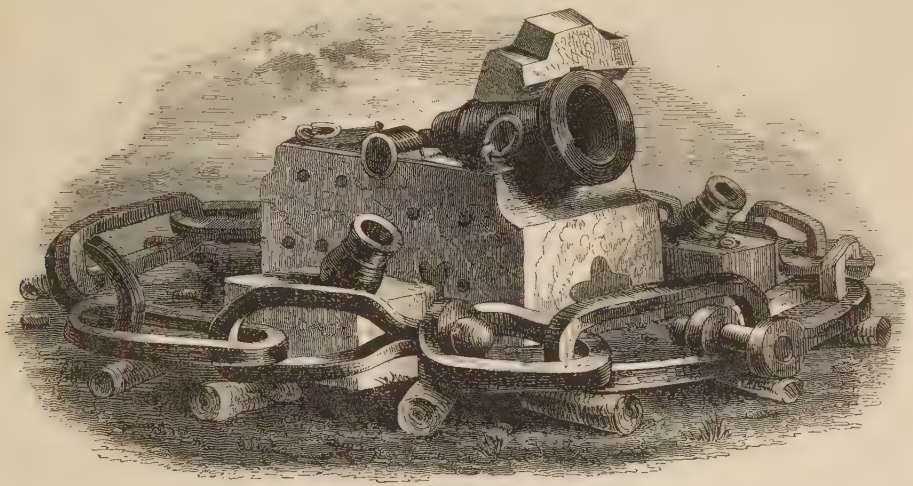
The *fourth*, was faire weather, and the wind at north north-west; wee weighed and came out of the river, into which we had runne so farre. Within a while after, *wee came out also of the great mouth of the great river*, that runneth up to the north-west, borrowing upon the norther side of the same, thinking to have deepe water; for we had sounded a great way with our boat at our first going in, and found seven, six, and five fathomes. So we came out that way, but we were deceived, for we had but eight foot and an halfe water: and so three, five, three, and two fathomes and an halfe. And then three, foure, five, sixe, seven, eight, nine and ten fathomes. And by twelve of the clocke we were cleere of all the inlet. Then we took in our boat, and set our mayne-sayle, and sprit-sayle, and our top-sayles, and steered away east south-east, and south-east by east off into the mayne sea: and the land on the souther side of the bay or inlet did beare at noone west and by south foure leagues from us.

The *fifth* was faire weather, and the wind variable betweene the north and the east. Wee held on our course south-east by east. At noone I observed and found our height to bee 39 degrees, 30 minutes. Our compasse varied sixe degrees to the west.

We continued our course toward Eng-

land, without seeing any land by the way, all the rest of this moneth of *October:* and on the *seventh day of November, stilo novo,* being Saturday, by the grace of God we safely arrived in the range of Dartmouth, in Devonshire, in the yeere 1609.

Hudson River Chain. The obstruction of the Hudson River, to prevent British vessels passing up during the Revolutionary War, and thus defeat the ministerial project for dividing the Union, occupied much of the attention of the patriots. First there were vessels sunk, and a sort of *chevaux-de-frise* constructed in the channel between Fort Washington, on Manhattan Island, and the Palisades.



GREAT CHAIN AND MORTARS.

Chevaux-de-frise were placed in the channel between Pollopel's Island and the western shore of the river, just above the upper entrance to the Highlands. A chain and boom were stretched across the river from Anthony's Nose to Fort Montgomery, at the lower entrance to the Highlands. In the spring of 1778 the most notable of all these obstructions, a heavy chain supported by huge logs, was stretched across the Hudson from West Point to Constitution Island, opposite. It was constructed at the Stirling Iron Works, in Warwick, Orange co., by Peter Townsend, under the supervision of Timothy Pickering. The task was performed in six weeks. The links were carted to New Windsor, where, at Captain Machin's forges, they were put together, and the whole floated down the river to West Point on logs late in April. The links weighed from 100 to 150 lbs. each. The length of the chain was 1,500 feet, and its entire weight was 186 tons. The logs that buoyed it were placed transversely with the chain, a few feet apart, and their ends secured by chains and strong timbers. The ends were made secure to the rocks on both shores. Fort Constitution, on Constitution Island, defended one end, and a small battery the other. In winter it was drawn on shore by a windlass, and replaced in the spring. The British never attempted to disturb it; but it is said Benedict Arnold, when he prepared for the consummation of his treason, took measures for weakening the chain—how, is not stated.

Huger, Isaac, military officer; born on Limerick Plantation, S. C., March 19, 1742. He and his four brothers—Daniel, John, Francis, and Benjamin—were distinguished in the struggle for independence, the latter falling in the lines at Charleston, May 11, 1780. They were of Huguenot descent. Isaac was in the Cherokee expedition in 1760, and entered

the patriot army of South Carolina as lieutenant-colonel in June, 1775. He rose to brigadier-general in January, 1779, for active and gallant services. In the attack on Savannah, in the fall of that year, he led the Georgia and South Carolina militia. His force was defeated and dispersed by Tarleton at Monk's Corner, S. C. He distinguished himself under Greene, especially at Guilford and Hobkirk's Hill (*q. v.*). He died in Charleston, S. C., Oct. 17, 1797.

Hughes, Charles Hamilton, physician; born in St. Louis, Mo., May 23, 1839; graduated at St. Louis Medical College in 1859; army surgeon and superintendent of military hospitals during the Civil War; president of numerous medical associations; and author of *Up with the Flag; The Great of Humble Birth in History;* and many medical and literary works.

Hughes, Robert P., military officer; born in Pennsylvania, April 11, 1839; entered the volunteer army as a private in the 12th Pennsylvania Infantry, April 25, 1861; became captain in the 85th Pennsylvania Infantry, May 20, 1862; lieutenant-colonel of the 199th Pennsylvania Infantry, Dec. 7, 1864; was brevetted colonel, April 2, 1865; and mustered out of the service, June 28, following. On July 28, 1866, he was commissioned a captain in the 18th United States Infantry; in 1870 was assigned to the 3d United States Infantry; in 1886 became major and inspector-general; and on Aug. 31, 1888, colonel and inspector-general. At the beginning of the war with Spain he was commissioned brigadier-general of volunteers; was honorably discharged under that commission, and reappointed to the same rank, April 16, 1899; and on the reorganization of the regular army in February, 1901, he was appointed one of the new brigadier-generals. His later service has been in the Philippine Islands, where he was particularly effective in clearing the Province of Iloilo of insurgents in the latter part of December, 1899.

Hughes, Robert William, lawyer; born in Powhatan county, Va., June 16, 1821; educated at the Caldwell Institute, North Carolina; taught school in North Carolina in 1840–42; editor of the Richmond (Va.) *Examiner* in 1852–57, the Richmond *Republic* in 1865–6, and the Richmond *State Journal.* He was United States district-attorney for western Virginia in 1871–73; Republican candidate for governor of Virginia in 1873; and author of *Law Reports; The Currency Question from a Southern Point of View; The American Dollar;* and lives of Generals Floyd and Johnston in Pollard's *Lee and his Lieutenants.*

Huguenot Society of America, The. This society was organized April 12, 1883, and has its office in New York at No. 105 East Twenty-second Street. President, Frederic J. De Peyster; vice-presidents, William Jay, Rev. Lea Luquer, Henry M. Lester, A. T. Clearwater, Nathaniel Thayer, Richard Olney, William Ely, Col. R. L. Maury, Rev. A. H. Demarest, Herbert Du Puy; treasurer, Henry Cotheal Swords; secretary, Mrs. James M. Lawton. Descent from Huguenot ancestors is the qualification necessary for membership.

Huguenots. The name of Huguenot was first given to the Protestants of France who favored the Reformation, but afterwards it was confined to the Calvinists, or followers of John Calvin, who was the morning-star of the Reformation in that country. Under his teaching the number of Protestants in France rapidly increased from 1528 to 1559, when the great synod held in May adopted Calvin's ideas of church government and discipline, as well as doctrine, in an embodied confession of faith. The Huguenots were then so strong that they confidently expected to be the dominant party in the state in time. They included some of the royal family and many of the nobility. Among the latter was Gaspard de Coligni, admiral of France, a man respected by both parties, a brave and patriotic soldier and sailor, and for a while the favorite of the queen mother and regent of France, Catharine de' Medici. In 1555 he formed a project of a settlement for the persecuted Huguenots in America; and in that year Henry II. furnished two ships, commanded by the Chevalier de Villagagnon, who, with a small Protestant colony, sailed from Havre-de-Grace in May, 1555, and reached the bay of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in September. Coligni provided ministers for his colony, and in a synod that year, held at

THE HUGUENOTS—LANDING OF JOHN RIBAULT (From an old print).

Geneva, of which Calvin was president, the church determined to send two ministers to Brazil. The enterprise was a failure.

On the death of Henry, Queen Catharine became regent of the kingdom during the minority of her son Charles. She cared nothing for religion, but had espoused the cause of the Protestants because the leader of the Roman Catholics was the Duke of Guise, a descendant of Charlemagne, and a claimant of a right to the French throne. The Protestants were still suffering greatly from persecution, and late in 1561 Coligni sought permission from Catharine to provide a refuge for them in the wilds of America. She readily granted all he desired, and early in 1562 he sent John Ribault, an expert mariner of Dieppe, with two caravels (small two-masted ships without whole decks), with sailors and soldiers, and a few gentlemen of fortune, who were prompted by a love of adventure and the prospect of gain to seek a place wherein to plant a colony. They arrived off the coast of Anastasia Island (it is supposed), below the site of St. Augustine, at the close of April. Sailing along the "sweet-smelling coast" of Florida, northward, the two vessels entered a river which was named Mary, and were kindly received by the natives when they landed. The Frenchmen were delighted with everything they beheld—the climate; the forest, redolent with the perfume of the magnolia; birds with gorgeous plumage and sweetest notes; and "people of the finest forms and kindest natures." In the presence of half-naked, wondering semi-worshippers, the Christians knelt in the shadows of a flower-laden magnolia-tree, and offered thanksgivings to God for their safe voyage. At twilight they returned to their ships; and the next morning conveyed a stone column, on which were carved the arms of France, planted it on a flowery knoll, and in the usual manner took possession of the country in the name of the boy-king Charles IX., son of Catharine.

A few days later they sailed northward, entered a broad sound which they named Port Royal, on the coast of South Caro-

lina, explored the Coosa and the Combahee, in the land where D'Allyon met a deserved fate, and on Port Royal Island, near the site of Beaufort, made choice of a spot for a colony. The Indians were kind, and so were the Frenchmen, and there was mutual friendship. Ribault addressed his company on the glory to be obtained and the advantage to the persecuted Huguenots by planting there the seed of empire, and asked, "Who will undertake the work?" Nearly all were willing. A colony of thirty persons was organized by the choice of Albert Pierria for governor. Ribault built a fort, and named it Carolina, in honor of his King, the remains of which were yet visible in 1866. After giving the colonists good advice, Ribault departed for Europe with the rest of the company. Coligni was delighted with his report, but was unable to do anything for his colony then, for civil war was raging between the Huguenots and Roman Catholics. When it subsided the admiral sent three vessels—the *Elizabeth of Honfleur*, the *Pétite Britain*, and the *Falcon*—under the command of René-Laudonnière, who was with the former expedition, to the aid and reinforcement of the colony. He was accompanied by Jacob Lemoyne, an artist and geographer; two skilful pilots (the brothers Vasseur) of Dieppe; and many young men of family and fortune, as well as mechanics and laborers.

Laudonnière left Havre-de-Grace on April 22, 1564, reached the coast of Florida in two months, and, instead of going to Port Royal, he proceeded to plant a colony on the banks of the St. John. He had evidently heard of the fate of the first colony before leaving France. That colony, expecting supplies from home, had not planted, and when Ribault did not return they were menaced with starvation. The friendly Indians supplied them with corn, but it was consumed by fire. Dissensions arose among them, a mutiny broke out, and their governor was murdered. The Indians became distrustful of the Frenchmen and withheld supplies, and the latter determined to desert Port Royal. Constructing a frail brigantine, they departed for home, with scanty supplies. Tempest-tossed on the ocean, their food was exhausted, and their vessel floated, a mere wreck, on the waters. One after another died and fell into the sea, and the survivors were about to eat the last victim when a green shore greeted their eyes, and a small vessel saved them from death. It is believed they were on the shores of England, for it is known that some of these French adventurers were taken before Queen Elizabeth, and gave her the first information concerning that beautiful middle region of America which Sir Walter Raleigh (*q. v.*) afterwards tried to colonize.

Laudonnière anchored his ship, landed where Ribault had set up the arms of France, and erected a fort on the south bank of the river, which he named Carolina. Rumors came of rich mines in the interior, and a violent gold-fever raged. Disappointment cured the fever, but idleness and improvidence were the rule in the colony. There were too many "gentlemen" who would not soil their hands with labor. At length there was a mutiny, and some of the soldiers and sailors seized two of the vessels, sailed for the West Indies, and turned pirates. The rich soil was neglected, starvation was threatened, and Laudonnière determined to return to France.

From Sir John Hawkins (see Drake, Sir Francis), who sailed into the St. John, he bought a ship, and was about to embark for Europe with the whole company, when Ribault appeared with a squadron of seven ships, with supplies, and a fresh colony of men, women, and children. He arrived near the close of August, 1565. A few days afterwards Pedro Menendez, a Spanish officer, appeared off the mouth of the St. John with five ships, who told Laudonnière that he was sent by his master, Philip, of Spain, to hang and destroy all Protestants whom he should find on land or sea; that he should execute his orders to the letter, and that if any Roman Catholics were among the Huguenots they should be well treated. The captains of the French vessels cut their cables and put to sea, chased by the Spaniards, who could not overtake them, and returned to the coast farther south. The Frenchmen returned to the St. John, where Indians brought the news that the Spaniards had landed, and were building fortifications.

Ribault, who was in chief command, believing the Spaniards meant to march overland and attack Fort Carolina, with three ships manned by sailors and soldiers went to sea to drive their enemies from the coast. Meanwhile Menendez had sent a galleon to Cuba for a reinforcement of Spanish troops. The spot fortified by Menendez was the site of St. Augustine, Fla. During Ribault's absence the Spanish marched over the country, captured Fort Carolina, butchered a greater portion of the Huguenots there, and hanged some of them upon trees, with the inscription over them, "Not as Frenchmen, but as Lutherans." The number of Huguenots murdered there was 142. Ribault's vessels meanwhile had been wrecked below St. Augustine, and while making his way towards Fort Carolina, with about 300 men, they were caught by the Spaniards and massacred. Laudonnière and a few others escaped from the St. John, and so ended the Huguenot colony.

A fiery Frenchman, Chevalier Dominic de Gourges, a Roman Catholic, determined to avenge this outrage. He sold his property to obtain money to fit out an expedition to Florida. He kept his destination a secret, even from his followers. He arrived in Florida in the spring of 1568, and was joined by the natives in an attack upon two forts on the St. John occupied by the Spaniards below Fort Carolina. The strong places were captured, and the whole of the Spaniards were slaughtered, excepting a few whom De Gourges hanged upon trees, under the words, "Not as Spaniards and mariners, but as traitors, robbers, and murderers." Menendez firmly planted a colony at St. Augustine. In 1598 Henry IV., of France, issued an edict at Nantes (see EDICT OF NANTES) that secured full toleration, civil and religious, for the Huguenots, and there was comparative rest for the Protestants until the death of Cardinal Mazarin, in 1661. Then the Huguenots began to be perse-

INDIANS DECORATING RIBAULT'S PILLAR (From an old print).

cuted, and in 1685 Louis XIV. revoked the Edict. The fires of intolerance were kindled, and burned so furiously that at least 500,000 Protestants took refuge in foreign lands. In 1705 there was not a single organized congregation of Huguenots in all France. Many came to America—some to South Carolina, some to New York, and a few to Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Virginia. They formed excellent social elements wherever they settled, and many leading patriots in the Revolutionary War were descended from them. Three of the presidents of the Continental Congress—Henry Laurens, John Jay, and Elias Boudinot—were of Huguenot parentage.

Hui Shen, Buddhist missionary to America; lived during the latter half of the fifth and the early years of the sixth centuries. Prof. John Fryer, of the University of California, contributes the following regarding the discovery of America by the Buddhist missionaries:

The ease of making a trip from Asia to America along the Kurile and Aleutian islands to Alaska strikes one at the first glance. Starting from Kamtchatka, which was early known to the Chinese, and to a certain extent under their control, the voyage in an open boat or canoe, following the great thermal ocean current, could at most times of the year be undertaken without the least danger or difficulty, it being unnecessary to be more than a short time out of sight of land. From Alaska down the American coast the journey would be still easier. Such a trip, compared with some of the well-authenticated wanderings of Buddhist priests, especially of those who travelled overland between China and India, is a mere trifle. Each part of the journey from Asia to America would be as well known to the natives of the various chains of islands in the fifth century as it is now. Hence the zealous missionary, determined to fulfil the commands of Buddha and carry his gospel to all lands, would have to press on from one island to another. The natives of each island would tell him of the large continent farther east; and thus he would ultimately find himself in America.

The direct evidence of this early Buddhist mission, though chiefly based on Chinese historical documents, covers also the traditions, histories, religious beliefs, and antiquities to be found in America, extending all the way down to the Pacific coast from Alaska to Mexico, as well as to many localities lying at a considerable distance inland.

From early times the Chinese classics, as well as the historical, geographical, and poetical works, allude to a country or continent at a great distance to the east of China, under the name of Fusang or Fusu. Its approximate distance is given as 20,000 *li*, or above 6,500 miles. Its breadth is stated to be 10,000 *li*, or about 3,250 miles. A wide sea is said to lie beyond it, which would seem like a reference to the Atlantic Ocean. It grew a wonderful kind of tree called the "fusang," from which the name of the continent is derived. The name would seem to imply that this is a species of mulberry, but every part of the description is utterly unlike any known species of that tree. What answers most nearly to the description is the Mexican agave or maguey. In ancient poetry the name of this land is used as a synonym for the extreme East, and many fabulous or fantastic accounts are given of its marvels. No doubt during the many catastrophes that overtook Chinese literature, whatever knowledge existed of this distant land became distorted, vague, and even contradictory. Yet enough was known with certainty to fire the enthusiasm of any itinerant Buddhist priest who wanted to spread his religion to the utmost bounds of the world. He would know of those who had gone to preach the Buddhist faith in the extreme West, and would naturally ask why he should not go to the extreme East.

The narrative of only one visit to the land of Fusang is on record in Chinese history, namely, that of Hui Shen, a native of Cophène, or Cabul, which was the great centre of Buddhist missionary exertions in early times. Since this account was considered of sufficient importance to deserve a place in the imperial archives of the Liang dynasty, and is handed down with the full authority of the great Chinese historian Ma Tuan-Lin, there should be no doubt as to its authenticity. Any attempt at fraud or misrep-

resentation would have been easily detected at the time, or before very long, and would have been of no advantage to the narrator, who certainly had nothing to gain but everything to lose by deception. His short story contains nothing marvellous or unnatural, and the internal evidence of truthfulness is such that only a foreign critic would ever suppose it might be a figment of the imagination.

The narrative states that there was a Buddhist priest named Hui Shen, originally a native of Cabul, who in the year 499 A.D., during the reign of the Emperor Yung Yuan, came from the country of Fusang to King-chow, the capital of the dynasty of Tsi, situated on the river Yang-tse. The country being in a state of revolution, it was not till the year 502 that he had an opportunity of going to the court of the Emperor Wu Ti, of the new Liang dynasty. He gave presents to the Emperor of curious articles brought from Fusang, among which was a material looking like silk, but the threads of which would support a great weight without breaking. This was evidently the fibre of the Mexican agave. He also presented a mirror of a foot in diameter, possessing wonderful properties, and resembling those in use in Mexico and other localities in America at that time. The Emperor treated him as an envoy from Fusang, and deputed one of the four principal feudal lords, named Yu Kie, to interrogate him respecting the country, and to take down his story in writing. This was accordingly done, and we have what is undoubtedly the original text, with only perhaps here and there a typographical error which can be easily explained.

Among other things, Hui Shen said that the people of Fusang were formerly in ignorance of the doctrines of Buddha, but during the reign of the Chinese Emperor Ta Ming, of the Sung dynasty, or A.D. 458, there were five *bikshus*, or Buddhist monks, from Cabul, who travelled there and promulgated the knowledge of the doctrines, books, and images of Buddhism. Their labors were successful, so that they ordained monks from among the natives; and thus the customs and manners of the people were soon reformed. He gave particulars of the journey through the Aleutian Islands and Alaska, with the length of the route, and a description of the inhabitants. He described the country of Fusang as 20,000 *li*, or 6,500 miles, to the east of Kamtchatka, and also due east from China. It grows great numbers of fusang-trees, which when they first

ROCK INSCRIPTION MADE BY AZTECS.

appear above ground are like bamboo shoots, and the people eat them. Threads are spun from the skin of the plant, which are woven into cloth from which clothing is made, or else it is made into embroidery. They also use the fibrous material of the fusang for making paper. These and many other features seem to point unmistakably to the Mexican agave. Red pears are mentioned which agree in description with the fruit of the prickly-pear, while grapes are represented as plentiful. There is plenty of copper, but no iron; and no money value is put on gold or silver. Their markets are free, and there are no fixed prices.

The manners and customs of the people, their forms of government, their marriage and funeral ceremonies, their food and clothing, the method of constructing their houses, the absence of soldiers and military weapons, cities and fortresses, are all particularly noted, and agree with what is found in no countries bordering on the Pacific, except on the continent of America in general, and in Mexico in particular. To suppose that Hui Shen could have invented all these statements, and that his story can be satisfactorily explained upon any other theory than that he had actually made the journey which he so truthfully and soberly describes, is, to say the least of it, absurd.

But it is time to take another view of the subject, and search for proofs of Hui Shen's visit among the early inhabitants of the American continent. There exists in Mexico a tradition of the visit of an extraordinary personage having a white complexion, and clothed in a long robe and mantle, who taught the people to abstain from evil and to live righteously, soberly, and peacefully. At last he met with severe persecutions, and his life being threatened, he suddenly disappeared, but left the imprint of his foot on a rock. A statue erected to his memory still stands upon a high rock at the village of Magdalena. He bore the name of Wi-shi-pecocha, which is probably a transliteration of Hui Shen *bikshu*. Another foreign teacher is described as coming with his followers to Mexico, named Quetzalcoatl. He landed on the Pacific coast, coming from the north by way of Panuco, and was most probably the leader of the party of five Buddhist priests that are already referred to. Hui Shen may have been one of the five, from the rest of whom he may afterwards have become separated, and then returned to China alone. The teachings ascribed to these visitors closely resemble those of Buddhism.

The religious customs and beliefs of the nations of Mexico, Yucatan, and Central America, their architecture, their calendar, their arts, and many other things which were found by the Spaniards when they conquered America, exhibit the most surprising coincidences with the details of Asiatic beliefs and Asiatic civilization. So much is this the case that those independent observers who have known nothing of the story of Hui Shen have been convinced that there must have been some kind of communication between America and Asia since the beginning of the Christian era. Thirty-five of these coincidences are given by Mr. Edward P. Vining, of San Francisco, in his exhaustive study of the subject, contained in his work entitled, *An Inglorious Columbus*. He says: "Almost any one of these coincidences might be fortuitous, but it seems impossible that so many coincidences could have existed unless the civilization of one continent was to some extent borrowed from the other." It may be added that the majority of these coincidences point most unmistakably to Buddhism, and if not actually introduced by Hui Shen and the party of Buddhist priests which he mentions, they must have been introduced in some similar way.

Searching for traces of Buddhist origin among the old names of persons, places, and things in America brings to light some curious facts. The name "Buddha" is not in general use in Asia, but instead is used his patronymic, "Gautama," or the name of his race, "Sakhya." Hence we may expect to find these names constantly recurring in America. In the places Guatemala, Huatamo, etc., in the high-priest Guatemotzin, etc., we find echoes of the first of these names. In Oaxaca, Zacatecas, Sacatepec, Zacatlan, Sacapulas, etc., we find more than a hint of the second. In fact, the high-priest of Mixteca had the title "Taysacca," or the man of Sacca. On an image representing Buddha at Palenque there is the name "Chaac-mol," which might have

been derived from Sakhyamnui, the full rendering of one of Buddha's names. The Buddhist priests in Tibet and North China are called "lamas," and the Mexican priest is known as the "tlama." A deified priest or lama, who is said to have lived on a small island near the Colorado River, had the name of Quatu Sacca, which seems to combine the two names Gautama and Sakhya. No very great value, however, is due to any single case of these resemblances to Buddhist names, but there being so many makes it highly probable that they are not all accidental. Again, it is worthy of notice that if "fusang" was used by Hui Shen to represent the maguey or agave plant, then, as Mexico signifies "the place or region of the agave," it follows naturally that if Mexico was the country he visited, he would call it the country of the "fusang."

When we come to look for visible traces of Buddhism among the antiquities of Mexico, we are soon amply rewarded. Images and sculptured tablets, ornaments, temples, pyramids, etc., abound that cannot well be ascribed to any other source with the show of reason. Among these may be mentioned the following: A large image found in Campeachy representing accurately a Buddhist priest in his robes.—An image of Buddha at Palenque, sitting cross-legged on a seat formed of two lions placed back to back, closely representing images found in India and China. — An elaborate elephant-faced god found among the Aztecs, which is evidently an imitation of the Indian image of Ganesha.—A Buddhist altar or table of stone found at Palenque. — Figures of Buddha sitting cross-legged with an aureola around his head, and placed in niches in the walls of the temples at Uxmal, Palenque, etc., being the exact counterparts of the images found in niches both inside and outside of Buddhist temples in China, Japan, and India.—A perfect elephant's head sculptured on the walls at Palenque, the elephant being the usual symbol of Buddha in Asia, and no elephants being found in America.—An old Mexican image now in the Ethnographical Societies' museum at Paris, and depicting Buddha sitting in the usual cross-legged attitude, with an inscription on either side, one of

ELEPHANT-FACED GOD—AZTEC IMITATION OF GANESHA.

the characters being evidently intended for Buddha, but engraved by a sculptor who did not know the Chinese written language.—On the walls of the thé temple of Uxmal there are astronomical diagrams and images, representing among other things the dragon which causes eclipses by swallowing the sun—a thoroughly Chinese notion—but instead of scales it is covered with feathers, showing the idea that it can fly.—The enormous temples or palaces at Palenque and Mitla, which are almost the counterparts of Buddhist temples that are found in Asia, particularly in Java, North China, and Mongolia, the large pyramidal base and the mode of construction all seeming to point to Buddhist origin.—The ornaments in the walls of the temples in different parts of Mexico are similar in design to those of many buildings in China and India; particularly the pattern known as the "Greek fret" or "Greek key" pattern, which is found in an almost endless variety of diamond fret, labyrinth fret, meander fret, double fret—having the fillets interlacing at right angles—and others for which we have no names. These may be seen to advantage in pictures of the walls of the "Room of Mosaics," at Mitla, at Uxmal, and elsewhere. —There is a Buddhist cross, or symbol of Buddha, carved on a pillar at Palenque.

BUDDHIST CROSS CARVED ON A PILLAR AT PALENQUE.

It must be acknowledged that there are many difficulties and inconsistencies in Hui Shen's account of the introduction of Buddhism into Fusang, or America. These, however, are easily accounted for when it is remembered he was a native of Cabul, speaking Chinese imperfectly, while Yu Kie, who had never travelled, must have failed to understand some of his statements. The account was written before printing was in use, and hence in the copying many errors may have crept in. Furthermore, the Chinese characters are subject to changes, in the lapse of time, both in sound and meaning. Again, when the Spanish overran America they soon abolished all the features of the indigenous civilization, which they supplanted by

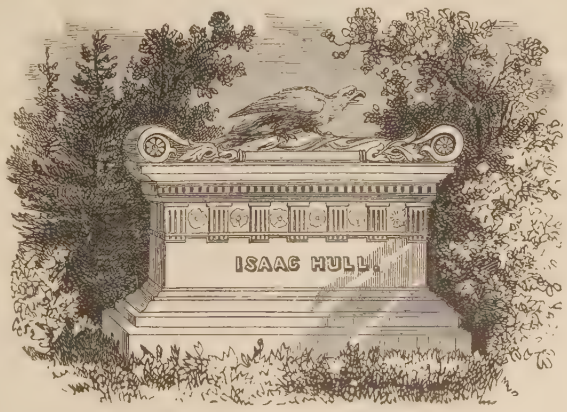
ISAAC HULL.

their own. Hence proofs which may then have remained of the introduction of Buddhism in the fifth century may have been soon swept out of existence.

Hull, Amos Girard, author; born in Paris, N. Y., March 7, 1815; graduated at Union College in 1840, and was made superintendent of schools in Volney, N. Y., in the following year. His publications include *Treatise on the Duties of Town and County Officers;* and *History of the Early Settlement of Oswego Falls.*

Hull, Isaac, naval officer; born in Derby, Conn., March 9, 1775; nephew of Gen. William Hull; when nineteen years old he commanded a merchant ship which sailed to London; entered the navy as lieutenant in 1798, and rose to captain in 1806. He was in the *Constitution,* and distinguished himself in the West Indies and in the Mediterranean. He sailed in the *Constitution* in July, 1812, and had a remarkable chase by a British squadron (see Constitution). In August he encountered the *Guerrière,* and made her a captive. For this exploit Congress voted him a gold medal. Afterwards he was a naval commissioner, and commodore of the navy-yards at Boston, Portsmouth, and Washington. He served in the American navy, afloat and ashore, thirty-seven years, and died in Philadelphia, Feb. 13, 1845. His remains rest in Laurel Hill Cemetery, and over them is a beautiful altar-tomb of Italian marble—a copy of the tomb of Scipio Barbatus at Rome. It is chastely ornamented, and surmounted by an American eagle, in the attitude of defending the national flag, upon which it stands.

Hull, William, military officer; born in Derby, Conn., June 24, 1753; graduated at Yale College in 1772; studied divinity a year; then became a student at the Litchfield Law School; and was admitted to the bar in 1775. He soon afterwards became captain in Webb's regiment, and joined the Continental army at Cambridge. He behaved bravely at Dorchester Heights, White Plains, Trenton, and Princeton, and after the battle at the latter place he was promoted to major. Through all the most conspicuous battles in the North, Hull was active and courageous, and a participant in the capture of Cornwallis. He served as inspector under Baron von Steuben; was promoted to lieutenant-colonel in 1779; and soon afterwards to colonel.



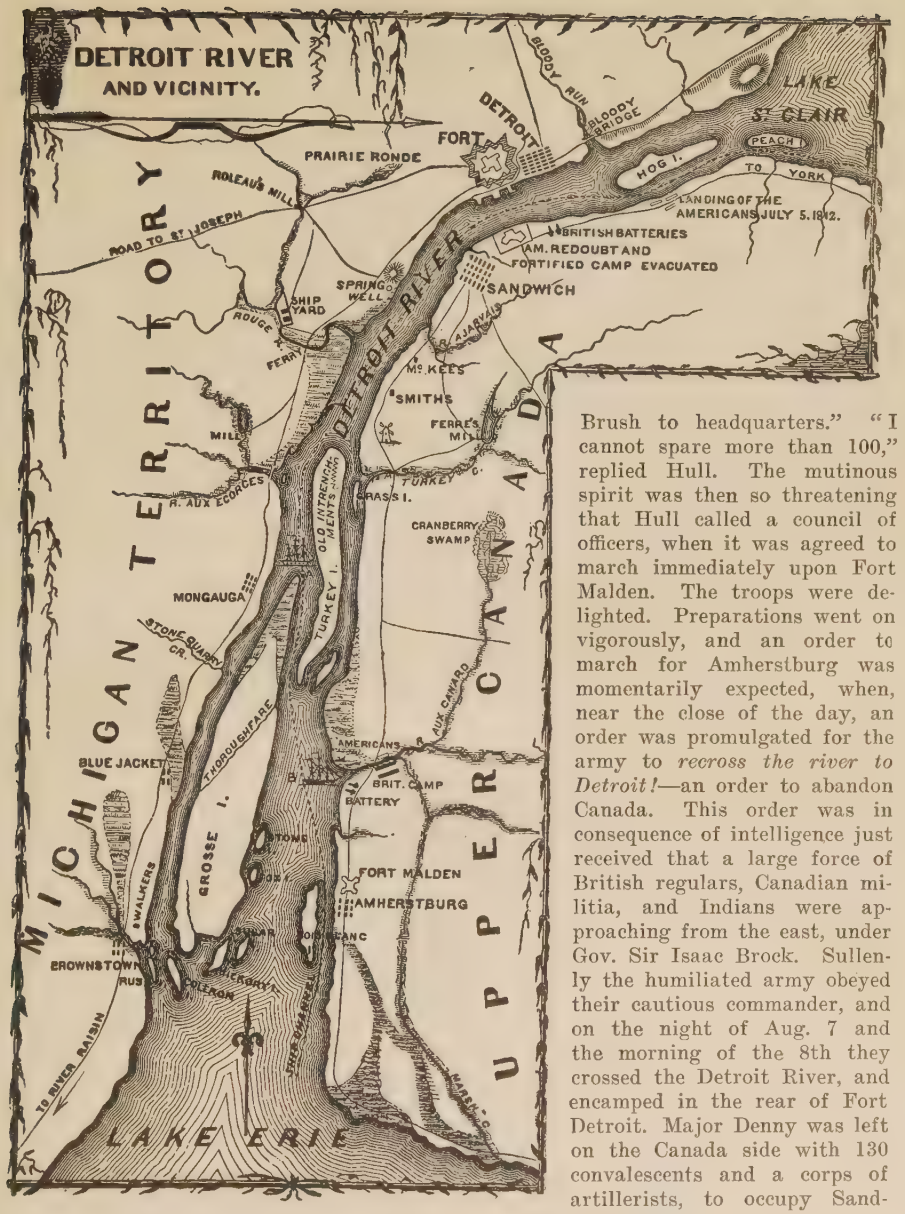
ISAAC HULL'S MONUMENT.

Hull practised law with reputation at Newton after the war, was a leading member of the Massachusetts legislature in both houses, and was a noted man in wealth and reputation in that State when he became major-general of militia. He commanded a portion of the troops which suppressed Shays's rebellion (see SHAYS, DANIEL). In 1793 he was a commissioner to Canada to treat with the Indians; and on his return from Europe, in 1798, he was made a judge of the court of common pleas. From 1805 to 1812 he was governor of Michigan Territory, where, after

a fruitless and brief campaign for the invasion of Canada, as commander of the Army of the Northwest, he was compelled to surrender Detroit and the Territory into the possession of the British. For this act he was tried by court-martial, sentenced to death, pardoned by the President, and afterwards published such a thorough vindication of his conduct that his name and fame now appear in history untarnished. He died in Newton, Mass., Nov. 29, 1825.

When General Hull arrived near Detroit with his army, July 6, 1812, he encamped at Spring Wells, opposite Sandwich, where the British were casting up intrenchments. His troops were anxious to cross the Detroit River immediately and invade Canada, but Hull had orders to await advices from Washington. The troops became almost mutinous. The general was perplexed, but was relieved by receiving a despatch from the Secretary of War telling him to "commence operations immediately." He could not procure boats enough to carry over a sufficient force to land in the face of the enemy at Sandwich, so he resorted to strategy. Towards the evening of July 11 all the boats were sent down to Spring Wells in full view of the British, and Colonel McArthur, with his regiment, marched to the same place. After dark troops and boats moved up the river unobserved to Bloody Run, above Detroit. The British, finding all silent at Spring Wells, believed the Americans had gone down to attack Malden, 18 miles below, so they left Sandwich and hurried to its defence. At dawn there were no troops to oppose the passage of the Americans, and Hull's troops passed the river unmolested. Colonel Cass hoisted the American flag at Sandwich, and the American troops encamped near. On the same day Hull issued a stirring proclamation, in which he set forth the reasons for the invasion, and assured the inhabitants that all who remained at home should be secure in person and property. He did not ask them to join him, but to remain quiet. This proclamation, and the presence of a considerable army, caused many Canadian militia to desert their standard. To the Americans the conquest of Canada appeared like an easy task.

Hull's army then lay almost inactive between Sandwich and Fort Malden. The young officers became exceedingly impatient, and almost mutinous, because Hull continually restrained them, and was unwilling to send out detachments on offensive expeditions. He had given Van Horne so few men wherewith to escort Captain Brush, with his cattle and provisions, that when the army heard of the disaster to the troops there was plain and



MAP OF THE SCENE OF SOME OF HULL'S OPERATIONS.

Brush to headquarters." "I cannot spare more than 100," replied Hull. The mutinous spirit was then so threatening that Hull called a council of officers, when it was agreed to march immediately upon Fort Malden. The troops were delighted. Preparations went on vigorously, and an order to march for Amherstburg was momentarily expected, when, near the close of the day, an order was promulgated for the army to *recross the river to Detroit!*—an order to abandon Canada. This order was in consequence of intelligence just received that a large force of British regulars, Canadian militia, and Indians were approaching from the east, under Gov. Sir Isaac Brock. Sullenly the humiliated army obeyed their cautious commander, and on the night of Aug. 7 and the morning of the 8th they crossed the Detroit River, and encamped in the rear of Fort Detroit. Major Denny was left on the Canada side with 130 convalescents and a corps of artillerists, to occupy Sandwich. Hull ordered Captain Heald to abandon Fort Dearborn, where Chicago now

loud talk at headquarters that startled the general. "Send 500 men at once," said McArthur and Cass, "to escort

stands. Accompanied by all the settlers Michigan, where he was attacked and de-

feated by the Indians. All the male civilians (excepting Mr. Kinzie and his sons), three officers, twenty-six privates, and twelve children were massacred, many of them after they had surrendered.

In consequence of negotiations for a suspension of hostilities between the American and British armies then proposed (1812), General Dearborn agreed with Sir George Prevost, governor-general of Canada, for a provisional armistice, confined to the American troops on the northern frontier and the armies of the British along the opposite and corresponding line. To effect this armistice Sir George's adjutant-general, Edward Baynes, repaired to Dearborn's headquarters at Greenbush, opposite Albany, and there the armistice was signed, Aug. 9, 1812. This armistice was rejected by the government of the United States, and Dearborn was directed to put an end to it immediately. But he continued it until Aug. 29, for the purpose, as he alleged, of forwarding stores to Sackett's Harbor. It released the British troops on the Niagara frontier, and Sir Isaac Brock, governor of Upper Canada, was enabled to hasten to the Detroit River and effect the capture of the army of General Hull. Dearborn gave that commander no intimation of the armistice; and it was during its unwarranted continuance for twenty days that the forced surrender of Hull to overwhelming numbers, Aug. 16, took place. Dearborn's excuse for his silence was that he did not consider Hull within the limits of his command.

General Hull, on his release at Montreal, on parole, returned to his farm at Newton, Mass., from which he was summoned to appear before a court-martial at Philadelphia on Feb. 25, 1813, of which Gen. Wade Hampton was appointed president. The members of the court were three brigadier-generals, nine colonels, and three lieutenant-colonels. A. J. Dallas, of Pennsylvania, was judge-advocate. This court was suddenly dissolved by the President, without giving any reason for the act; and, almost a year afterwards, Hull was summoned before another, convened at Albany, N. Y., Jan. 3, 1814, composed of three brigadier-generals, four colonels, and five lieutenant-colonels, with Dallas as judge-advocate. General Dearborn was appointed president of the court. His neglect of duty to inform Hull of an armistice he had entered into with the British (and so allowed Brock to go unopposed to Fort Malden with troops) was charged by the accused and his friends as the chief cause of the disaster at Detroit. The defendant might justly have objected to that officer as his chief judge, for the acquittal of Hull would have been a condemnation of Dearborn. But Hull was anxious for trial, and he waived all feeling. He was charged with treason, cowardice, neglect of duty, and unofficerlike conduct from April 9 until Aug. 16, 1812. He was tried on the last two charges only. Colonel Cass was his chief accuser. The specifications under the charge of "cowardice" were: "1. Not attacking Malden, and retreating to Detroit. 2. Appearance of alarm during the cannonade. 3. Appearance of alarm on the day of the surrender. 4. Surrendering of Detroit." The specifications under the last charge were similar to those under the first. After a session of eighty days, the court decided, March 26, 1814, that he was not guilty of treason, but found him guilty of cowardice and neglect of duty, and sentenced him to be shot, and his name stricken from the rolls of the army. The court strongly recommended him to the mercy of the President on account of his age and his Revolutionary services. On April 25, 1814, the President approved the sentence of the court-martial, and on the same day the following order, bearing the signature of Adjutant-General Walbach, was issued: "The rolls of the army are to be no longer disgraced by having upon them the name of Brig.-Gen. William Hull. The general court-martial, of which General Dearborn is president, is hereby dissolved." For about twelve years Hull lived under a cloud. His applications to the War Department at Washington for copies of papers which would vindicate him were denied, until John C. Calhoun became Secretary of War, when he promptly furnished them. With these General Hull set about writing his vindication, which was contained in a pamphlet of a little more than 300 pages, entitled *Memoirs of the Campaign of the Northwestern Army of the United*

States. It wrought a great change in the public mind. It was seen that he had been misjudged by his impetuous young officers; that his motives in making the surrender were humane and just, and that his assuming the whole responsibility of the act was heroic in the extreme. To Mr. Wallace, one of his aides, he said, when they parted at Detroit: "God bless you, my young friend! You return to your family without a stain; as for myself, I have sacrificed a reputation dearer to me than life; but I have saved the inhabitants of Detroit, and my heart approves the act." To-day the character of Gen. William Hull, purified of unwarranted stains, appears in history without a blemish in the eye of just appreciation.

Hulsemann Letter, THE. During the Hungarian revolution President Taylor sent an agent to Hungary for the purpose of obtaining official information. The agent's report was not received until after the revolution had been crushed, but the Austrian *chargé* at Washington, D. C., Mr. Hulsemann, in a highly offensive letter, complained of the action of the United States government in sending this representative. Daniel Webster, in his reply, Dec. 21, 1850, administered a very sharp rebuke, claiming the rights of the United States to recognize any *de facto* revolutionary government and to seek information in all proper ways in order to guide its action. The intense enthusiasm with which Kossuth was greeted in the United States led Mr. Hulsemann to return to Austria.

Humphreys, ANDREW ATKINSON, military officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Nov. 2, 1810; graduated at West Point in 1831; distinguished himself in Florida (see SEMINOLE WAR) in 1832; and resigned in 1836. He re-entered the army as lieutenant of topographical engineers in 1838. From 1845 to 1849 he assisted in the coast survey, and in 1853 took charge of the office of explorations and surveys in the War Department. He became a member of General McClellan's staff in March, 1862, and soon afterwards was made brigadier-general of volunteers. He fought at Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville; was General Meade's chief of staff from July, 1863, to November, 1864, and commanded the 2d Corps from November, 1864, to June, 1865. He was brevetted major-general for meritorious services in the siege of Petersburg and the pursuit and capture of General Lee. In 1866 he was appointed chief of the corps of engineers, and in 1879 was retired. He was author of many important reports of an engineering and scientific character. He died in Washington, D. C., Dec. 27, 1883.

Humphreys, DAVID, military officer; born in Derby, Conn., July 10, 1752; graduated at Yale College in 1771, and was for a short time tutor in the family of Colonel Phillipse, of Phillipse Manor, N. Y. He entered the army as captain early in the Revolutionary War, and in October, 1777, was major of a brigade. He was aide to General Putnam in 1778,

DAVID HUMPHREYS.

and early in 1780 was made aide to Washington. Having distinguished himself at Yorktown, he was made the bearer of the captured British standards to Congress, when that body voted him an elegant sword. At the close of the war he accompanied Washington to Mount Vernon, and in July, 1784, went to France as secretary of legation to Jefferson, accompanied by Kosciuszko. In 1787 he was appointed colonel of a regiment for the Western service, but when it was reduced, in 1788, he again went to Mount Vernon, where he remained with Washington until sent as minister to Portugal in 1790. He was master of ceremonies in regulating the etiquette of the republican court of

the first President. Appointed minister to Spain in 1797, he continued there until 1802, and concluded treaties with Algiers and Tripoli. He was extensively engaged in agriculture and manufactures after his return to America, and in 1812 he took command of the militia of Connecticut. He was a poet of considerable genius; also a dramatic writer. He died in New Haven, Conn., Feb. 21, 1818.

Humphreys, EDWARD RUPERT, educator; born in England, March 1, 1820; educated at Cambridge University; he came to the United States and was appointed principal of the Boston Collegiate School. His publications include *Education of Military Officers; Higher Education of Europe and America; America, Past, Present, and Prospective,* etc. He died in Boston, Mass., March 20, 1893.

Hundred, A, the name of a territorial division, having for its chief object the more convenient and efficient administration of justice. The name was originally derived from the fact that each of these divisions was to contain 100 free families. In England, to each hundred belonged a court baron, similar in its nature and extent of jurisdiction to a county court. The phrase was largely applied to sections in Virginia and other Southern States.

Hundred Associates, THE. Cardinal Richelieu, in 1627, annulled a charter of the Trading Company of New France, then held by the Sieurs de Caen, who were Huguenots, and in pursuance of his plans for the suppression of these Protestants and the aggrandizement of his monarch, organized a company under the name of the Hundred Associates, to whom he gave the absolute sovereignty of the whole of New France, then claimed to include the American territory from Florida to Hudson Bay. They were given complete monopoly of the trade in that region, excepting in the whale and cod fisheries. The charter required the company to settle 4,000 Roman Catholics there within fifteen years, to maintain and permanently endow the Roman Catholic Church in New France, and to banish all HUGUENOTS (*q. v.*) or Protestants from the colony. Circumstances frustrated this scheme of temporal and spiritual dominion in America. Canada was conquered by the British in 1629, but was restored by the treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye, March 27, 1632, the whole of Canada, Cape Breton, and Acadia being restored to the French. The scheme of the Hundred Associates was not revived.

Hunkers, the name applied to various political factions in the United States, but in a particular sense to the conservative Democrats of New York State; first used as a designation in 1844. The history of the New York faction, to which the name was afterwards applied, is traceable as far back as 1835. In 1835–40 this faction, which deprecated the introduction of new problems in politics, opposed the war on bank charters by the LOCO-FOCO (*q. v.*) faction, although it aided in passing a State banking law in 1838. In 1840–46 they opposed the demand of the radical Democrats for a revision of the State constitution, a cessation of unprofitable canal enterprises, and an elective judiciary, but in this movement were also defeated. In 1846–52 they met with success in their advocacy of the abolition of the State branch of the Democratic party in antagonism to the national organization. After this the Marcy Hunkers, known as "softs," supported the Pierce administration, while the Dickinson Hunkers, known as "hards," opposed it. The latter during the Civil War were generally "war Democrats." The principal Hunker leaders were: Daniel S. Dickinson, Edwin Croswell, William C. Bouck, William L. Marcy, Horatio Seymour, and Samuel Beardsley; and their leading opponents were Martin Van Buren, Silas Wright, A. C. Flagg, John A. Dix, Reuben E. Fenton, Samuel Young, and Michael Hoffman. See ALBANY REGENCY.

Hunt, FREEMAN, author; born in Quincy, Mass., March 21, 1804; became a printer; engaged in journalism and during his career was publisher of several papers. His works include *American Anecdotes, Original and Selected, by an American; Comprehensive Atlas; Letters about the Hudson River and Its Vicinity; Lives of American Merchants,* etc. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., March 2, 1858.

Hunt, HENRY JACKSON, military officer; born in Detroit, Mich., Sept. 14, 1819; graduated at West Point in 1839; served

in the war with Mexico; and in May, 1861, was promoted to major of artillery. In September he became aide to General McClellan, with the rank of colonel, and in September, 1862, was made brigadier-general of volunteers. In the battle of Bull Run he commanded the artillery on the extreme left. He was chief of staff of the Army of the Potomac in the campaign on the Peninsula, and continued with that army as one of its most efficient and useful officers until the close of the war. He was brevetted brigadier-general and major-general in the regular army in 1865; commissioned colonel of the 5th Artillery in 1869; retired in 1883; and appointed governor of the Soldiers' Home in Washington, D. C., in 1883. He died in Washington, Feb. 11, 1889.

Hunt, ISAAC, author; born in Barbadoes, W. I., in 1751; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1763; admitted to the bar in 1765. When the Revolutionary War broke out he was a strong royalist, and wrote leaflets which led to his imprisonment, but later he escaped and went to England, where he became a clergyman. His publications include *The Political Family, or a Discourse pointing out the Reciprocal Advantages which flow from an Uninterrupted Union between Great Britain and her American Colonies; Right of Englishmen, an Antidote to the Poison of Thomas Paine; Autobiography of John Trumbull,* etc. He died in London, in 1809.

Hunt, ROBERT, first pastor of the Virginia colony; went out with Newport and the first settlers as chaplain, having been recommended by RICHARD HAKLUYT (*q. v.*). He is supposed to have been a rector in Kent. He was a peace-maker amid the dissenters of the first colonists. Mr. Hunt held the first public service at Jamestown, under an awning, but soon afterwards a barn-like structure was erected for worship. In the winter of 1608 a fire burned his little library, and the next year he died. He was succeeded for a brief season by Rev. Mr. Glover, who soon died. He had accompanied Sir Thomas Gates to Virginia.

Hunt, SAMUEL, clergyman; born in Attleboro, Mass., March 18, 1810; graduated at Amherst College in 1832, and ordained in the Congregational Church; was pastor in Natick, Mass., in 1839–50, and in Franklin, Mass., in 1850–64. He was the author of *Rise and Fall of the Slave Power in America* (with Henry Wilson); *Political Duties of Christians,* etc. He died in Boston, Mass., July 23, 1878.

Hunt, WARD, jurist; born in Utica, N. Y., June 14, 1810; graduated at Union College in 1828; practised in his native town for many years; was elected a judge of the New York Court of Appeals in 1865; and appointed an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court in 1872. He died in Washington, D. C., March 24, 1886.

Hunt, WILLIAM HENRY, lawyer; born in Charleston, S. C., in 1824; educated at Yale College; settled in New Orleans to practise; supported the National cause during the Civil War. He was Secretary of the Navy in 1881–82; and in the latter year was appointed minister to Russia. He died in St. Petersburg, Russia, Feb. 27, 1884.

Hunter, DAVID, military officer; born in Washington, D. C., July 21, 1802; graduated at West Point in 1822; was appointed colonel of the 6th Cavalry in May, 1861; and commanded the main column of the Union troops, as brigadier-general, in the battle of Bull Run, where he was severely wounded. In August he was made major-general of volunteers; served under Frémont in Missouri; and superseded him in November. In the spring of 1862 he was in command of the Department of the South. He commanded the Department of West Virginia in the summer of 1864, where he was active for a while. For his various services he was brevetted major-general in 1865. He was retired in 1866, and died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 2, 1886.

In the spring of 1862 General Hunter was in command of the Department of the South. He declared martial law in his department. Giving a free interpretation to his instructions from the War Department, he took measures for organizing regiments of negro troops; and to facilitate the business of recruiting he issued a general order, April 25, 1862, which proclaimed the absolute freedom of all the slaves within his department, declaring that "slavery and martial law, in a free

country, are incompatible." This was a step too far in advance of public sentiment, then, and of the government policy of that period; so President Lincoln annulled the order, and President Davis outlawed Generals Hunter and Phelps. See EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATIONS.

Hunter, JOHN DUNN, adventurer; born of white parents west of the Mississippi about 1798; was adopted by the Kickapoo Indians while an infant. In 1817 he went to New Orleans to seek an education; later visited New York, Philadelphia, and other cities, and for a time was warmly received everywhere. Prior to the Mexican War he tried to secure from the Mexican government an immense tract of land on which he said he would settle Indians and thus form a barrier to the encroachments of the United States. After this attempt met with failure he went to Texas and became a leader in the party seeking independence. He published *Manners and Customs of Several Indian Tribes located West of the Mississippi.* He was killed by an Indian near Nacogdoches, Tex., in 1827.

Hunter, JOSEPH, author; born in Sheffield, England, Feb. 6, 1783; became a Presbyterian minister and was pastor in Bath in 1809–33. He published *Founders of New Plymouth.* He died in London, May 9, 1861.

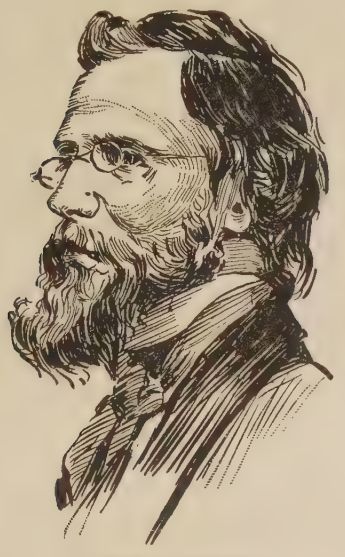
Hunter, ROBERT MERCER TALIAFERRO, statesman; born in Essex county, Va., April 21, 1809; was educated at the University of Virginia; became a member of the House of Delegates when twenty-four years of age; and was a member of Congress from 1837 to 1841, and from 1845 to 1847. From 1839 to 1841 he was speaker. He was one of the most persistent supporters of the doctrine of State supremacy and of the slave-labor system, advocating with vehemence all measures calculated to enforce the practical operations of the former and to nationalize the latter. In 1847 he became a United States Senator, and remained such by re-election until July, 1861, when he was expelled from that body for treason against the government. He became the Confederate secretary of state, and afterwards a member of the Confederate Congress. After the war he was held for a while as a prisoner of state. He was an unsuccessful candidate for United States Senator in 1874; became State treasurer of Virginia in 1877; and shortly before his death, July 18, 1887, became collector at Tappahannock, Va.

Hunters' Lodges. When the insurrection broke out in Canada in 1837, many Americans strongly sympathized with the insurgents. Men banded in secret organizations with a view to give material aid. These organizations were called Hunters' Lodges. Among their members were many Canadian refugees, and William Lyon Mackenzie, the chief agitator in Upper Canada, organized an executive committee in Buffalo, N. Y., for the purpose of directing the invasion of Canada. These Hunters' Lodges organized invading parties at Detroit, Sandusky, Oswego, and Watertown, in northern New York, and in Vermont. At one time, Van Rensselaer and Johnson had under them about 2,000 men. Hunters' Lodges were suppressed by order of President Tyler in 1842.

Huntington, COLLIS POTTER, capitalist; born in Harwinton, Conn., Oct. 22, 1821; removed to Oneonta, N. Y., and sold clocks; went to California in 1849, and carried on this business in Sacramento. Later he became associated in the hardware business with Mark Hopkins, and their firm became known as the wealthiest on the Pacific coast. In 1860 he matured the scheme of a transcontinental railroad; and with Leland Stanford, Mark Hopkins, and Charles Crocker built the Central Pacific and Southern Pacific railroads. Later he built the Chesapeake & Ohio and other railroads, making a continuous system from San Francisco to Newport News, Va. At the time of his death he was president of twenty-six corporations, with over 9,000 miles of railroad track and 5,000 miles of steamboat line. He died in Pine Knot Camp, near Lake Raquette, N. Y., Aug. 13, 1900.

Huntington, DANIEL, artist; born in New York, Oct. 14, 1816; was educated at Hamilton College. In 1835 he began studying art with SAMUEL F. B. MORSE (*q. v.*), president of the National Academy of Design; in 1839 and 1844 visited Europe; and while in Rome and Florence produced several notable paintings. In 1862 and 1869 he was elected president of the National Academy, and served

continuously in the same office in 1877–91. His paintings include *The Bar-room Politician; A Toper Asleep;* portraits: *Abraham Lincoln; Martin Van Buren;*



DANIEL HUNTINGTON.

Albert Gallatin, etc.; figure pieces: *Mercy's Dream; Sacred Lesson; Mrs. Washington's Reception; The Good Samaritan; Righteousness and Peace; The Atlantic Cable Projectors,* etc.

Huntington, EBENEZER, military officer; born in Norwich, Conn., Dec. 26, 1754; graduated at Yale College in 1775, and joined the patriot army as lieutenant in Wyllys's regiment. He served under Heath, Parsons, and Watts, and commanded the regiment of the latter in Rhode Island in 1778 as lieutenant-colonel. At Yorktown he commanded a battalion of infantry, and served on General Lincoln's staff until the end of the war, when he was made a general of the Connecticut militia. Huntington was named by Washington for brigadier-general in 1798. In 1810–11 and 1817–19 he was a member of Congress. He died in Norwich, June 17, 1834.

Huntington, JEDEDIAH, military officer; born in Norwich, Conn., Aug. 4, 1743; brother of the preceding; graduated at Harvard College in 1763; was an active Son of Liberty; joined the army at Cambridge, April 26, 1775; was made brigadier-general in May, 1777; joined the Continental army near Philadelphia in the fall of 1777; and in 1778 was on the court-martial that tried General Lee. After the war he held several civil offices, among them collector of customs at New London, which he filled during four administrations. General Huntington was a member of the first board of foreign missions. He died in New London, Sept. 25, 1813.

Huntington, JEDEDIAH VINCENT, author; born in New York City, Jan. 20, 1815; graduated at the New York University in 1835; and at the medical department of the University of Pennsylvania in 1838; became a Protestant Episcopal minister in 1841, and a Roman Catholic in 1849. His publications include *Alban, or the History of a Young Puritan; America Discovered,* etc. He also translated Franchère's *Narrative of a Voyage to the Northwest Coast of America.* He died in Paris, France, March 10, 1862.

Huntington, SAMUEL, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Windham, Conn., July 3, 1731; was brought up on his father's farm and learned the cooper's trade. In 1753 he began to study law; in 1758 settled in the town of Norwich, which he represented in the General Assembly in 1764; in 1765 was made king's attorney; and in 1775 was a member of the upper house in the Connecticut Assembly; was a member of the Continental Congress in 1776–83; president of it in 1779–81; judge of the Supreme Court of Connecticut in 1774–84, and in the latter year was chief-justice of that court. He was lieutenant-governor of Connecticut in 1785, and governor in 1786–96. He died in Norwich, Conn., Jan. 5, 1796.

Huntsville, CAPTURE OF. Gen. Ormsby M. Mitchell left Nashville late in March, 1862, and passed through Murfreesboro, Fayetteville, and Huntsville, Ala., reaching the latter point on April 9. As a result the railroad between Stevenson and Decatur, over 100 miles, came into possession of the National forces, thereby cutting off communication between the Confederates east and west.

Hurd, JOHN CODMAN, author; born in Boston, Mass., Nov. 11, 1816; graduated at Yale College in 1836; travelled in Egypt, India, China, and Japan. His publications include *The Law of Freedom and Bondage in the United States;* and *The Theory of our National Existence as shown by the Action of the Government of the United States since 1861.*

Hurlbut, STEPHEN AUGUSTUS, military officer; born in Charleston, S. C., Nov. 29, 1815; became a lawyer; served in the Florida War; and in 1845 settled in Illinois. He was appointed brigadier-general of volunteers in May, 1861; commanded a division at the battle of Shiloh; and was made major-general in 1862. He succeeded Banks in command of the Department of the Gulf; in 1869–72 was minister to Colombia; and from 1881 till his death, March 27, 1882, was minister to Peru.

Huron Indians. See IRIQUOIS CONFEDERACY.

Hurst, JOHN FLETCHER, clergyman; born in Dorchester county, Md., Aug. 17, 1834; graduated at Dickinson in 1854; ordained in 1858; elected a bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church in 1880; founded the American University in Washington, D. C., in 1891. Among his works are *Our Theological Century; Short History of the Christian Church; Indika; Bibliotheca Theologica;* etc. He died in Washington, D. C., May 4, 1903.

Husbands, HERMANN, patriot; born in Pennsylvania; was a member of the Society of Friends. Removing to Orange county, N. C., he became a member of the legislature of that colony, and a leader among the opponents of the royal government called Regulators, in 1768, organized for the forcible redress of public grievances. When, on May 14, 1771, a battle began on the Allemance Creek between 1,000 men under Governor Tryon and 2,000 Regulators (in which the latter were defeated), Husbands declared that the peace principles of his sect would not allow him to fight. He had not objected to the arming of the people, but when they were about to use arms he rode away, and was never afterwards seen in that region until the struggle for independence was over. He had made his way to Pennsylvania, where, in 1771, he published an account of the Regulator movement. Husbands was a member of the Pennsylvania legislature in 1778, and was concerned in the whiskey insurrection in 1794, with Gallatin, Breckinridge, and others, as a committee of safety. For this offence he suffered a short imprisonment at Philadelphia. He died on his way home, near Philadelphia, in 1795.

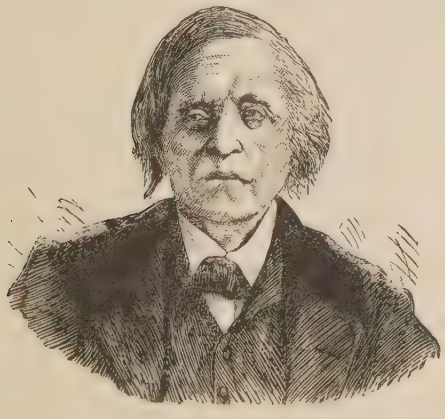
Husbandry, PATRONS OF. Public attention was much occupied in 1873 with the subject of cheap transportation along the courses of commerce from the Western States to the seaboard. Congress decided that the national government, under express provisions of the Constitution, had power to regulate commerce carried on by railroads. On March 7, 1874, a bill was introduced, and passed the House of Representatives, for the institution of a board of commissioners for the regulation of such commerce carried on between the several States. In that movement a new organization, known as Patrons of Husbandry, appeared conspicuous. It was a secret order, established for the promotion of the varied interests of agriculture, and had then become powerful in numbers and in influence. It was divided into local associations, called granges. There was a central, or parent, organization at Washington, known as the National Grange, and State granges were formed. The membership consisted of men and women engaged in agricultural pursuits. These granges first appeared in 1870, when there were only nineteen in the whole Union. In 1876, when they reached their maximum in strength, there were 19,000. Its aims were excellent, and it was the first secret society that admitted both men and women to membership.

Hutcheson, FRANCIS, philosopher; born in County Down, Ireland, Aug. 8, 1694; was Professor of Moral Philosophy in Glasgow in 1729–46. He clearly perceived the coming independence of the English-American colonies. "When," he inquired, "have colonies a right to be released from the dominion of the parent state?" He answered his own question, saying: "Whenever they are so increased in numbers and strength as to be sufficient by themselves for all the good ends of a political union." At the beginning of the French and Indian War

the American colonies were in that happy condition, and the proposition for a colonial union, made in convention at Albany, in 1754, excited the apprehension that independence was the primary aim of the Americans. Governor Shirley tried to allay the apprehension by declaring that the various governments of the colonies had such different constitutions that it would be impossible for them to confederate in an attempt to throw off the British yoke. "At all events," he said, "they could not maintain such an independency without a strong naval force, which it must forever be in the power of Great Britain to hinder them from having." Hutcheson died in Glasgow in 1746.

Hutchings, WILLIAM, Continental soldier; born in York, Me., Oct. 6, 1764. He and Lemuel Cook, another of the late survivors, were born the same year, and died the same month. They were the last survivors of the soldiers in the Revolutionary War. When William was four years old the family removed to Plantation Number Three, at the mouth of the Penobscot (now Castine). There, on a farm, which his descendants occupied, he continued to live until his death, May 2, 1866, excepting a short interval of time. He was a witness to the stirring scenes of the Massachusetts expedition to Penobscot in 1779, and aided (by compulsion) the British in the construction of Fort George, on the peninsula. After the destruction of the British fleet, his father, who refused to take the oath of allegiance to the crown, retired to New Castle, where he remained until the close of the war. At the age of fifteen, having acquired a man's stature, William entered the Continental army. He enlisted in a regiment of Massachusetts militia commanded by Col. Samuel McCobb, Capt. Benjamin Lemont's company, as a volunteer for six months. That was in the spring of 1780 or 1781; and he was honorably discharged about Christmas, the same year, at Cox's Head, at the mouth of the Kennebec River. He received an annual pension of $21.60 until 1865, when an annual gratuity of $300 was granted by Congress to each of the five Revolutionary soldiers then supposed to be living. Only four of the number lived to receive this gratuity. William Hutchings and Lemuel Cook were the last.

REMAINS OF FORT GEORGE IN 1860



WILLIAM HUTCHINGS.

In 1865, when over 100 years of age, he

received an invitation from the city authorities of Bangor to join in the celebration of the Fourth of July there. He accepted it. A revenue-cutter conveyed him from Castine to Bangor. The guns of Fort Knox, on the Penobscot, gave him a salute of welcome as he passed. At Bangor multitudes rushed to get a glimpse of the veteran as he was escorted through the streets. Senator Hamlin delivered an oration on that occasion, and at the close Mr. Hutchings responded at some length to a toast. "My friends told me," he said, "that the effort to be here might cause my death; but I thought I could never die any better than by celebrating the glorious Fourth."

Hutchins, THOMAS, geographer; born in Monmouth, N. J., in 1730; joined the British army when sixteen years old; was made paymaster and captain of the 60th Royal American Regiment. In 1779, while in London, his desire for American independence became known, and he spent six weeks in prison on the charge of writing to Benjamin Franklin, then in France. He is said to have lost nearly $60,000 by this affair. Later he settled in Charleston, S. C. He was the author of *A Topographical Description of Virginia, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and North Carolina; History, Narrative, and Topographical Description of Louisiana and West Florida,* etc. He died in Pittsburg, Pa., April 28, 1789.

Hutchinson, ANNE, religious enthusiast; born in Alford, Lincolnshire, England, about 1590; was a daughter of Rev. Francis Marbury, rector of St. Martin, Vintry, and other London parishes. The preaching of John Cotton and her brother-in-law, John Wheelwright, greatly interested her, and she, with her husband, followed them to Boston in the autumn of 1634, where she was admitted to membership in the church. Being a woman of strong mind, fluent in speech, bold in defence of her convictions, she soon acquired great influence in the church. She called meetings of the women of the church to discuss doctrines and sermons, and she expressed views on religious matters which had offended some of her fellow-passengers on the voyage. She was tolerated for a while, but finally the controversy between her supporters and opponents became a public controversy (1636). Governor Vane, Cotton, Wheelwright, and the whole Boston church excepting five members were her supporters, while the country clergy and churches were united against her. The dispute permeated every department of the colony and influenced public action in civil, military, and ecclesiastical affairs. On Aug. 30, 1637, an ecclesiastical synod at Newtown condemned her opinions, and she was summoned before the general court to answer. After a trial of two days' duration, she and some of her adherents were sentenced to banishment from the territory of Massachusetts. She went to Rhode Island, where a deputation sent by the church at Boston vainly tried to reclaim her. Her husband died in 1642, when she removed, with her surviving family, into the territory of New Netherland to avoid persecution. The Indians and Dutch were then at war. The former invaded her retreat and murdered her, her son, and son-in-law, and carried off her little granddaughter, Anna Collins, in August, 1643. Some of her neighbors also suffered, eighteen of them being killed, and their cattle, put into barns, were burned. The place of the tragedy was on Pelham Neck. The region was called Anne's Hoeck, or Point. Several women and children were saved in a boat. When Mrs. Hutchinson's little granddaughter was delivered to the Dutch at New Amsterdam, four years afterwards, according to the terms of a treaty, to be sent to her friends in Boston, she had forgotten her own language, and did not wish to leave her Indian friends. See HUTCHINSONIAN CONTROVERSY, THE.

HUTCHINSON, THOMAS

Hutchinson, THOMAS, royal governor; born in Boston, Sept. 9, 1711; graduated at Harvard College in 1727, and, after engaging unsuccessfully in commerce, studied law, and began its practice in Boston. That city sent him to London as its agent in important business; and he represented it in the general court for

ten years. In 1752 he was chosen judge of probate; was a councillor from 1749 to 1766; was lieutenant-governor from 1758 to 1771; and was made chief-justice

of the province in 1768. At that time he held four high offices under the King's appointment, and he naturally sided with the crown in the rising disputes, and became very obnoxious to the republicans. When, in 1769, Governor Bernard was recalled, Hutchinson became acting-governor of Massachusetts, and was commissioned governor in 1771. He was continually engaged in controversies with the popular Assembly, and often with his council. The publication of some of his letters (1773), which proved that he had been for years urging upon Parliament the necessity for the strict enforcement of power over the colonies, raised a storm of indignation, and his recall was demanded. This indignation was increased by his action concerning the landing of cargoes of tea in Boston, and he sailed for England, June 1, 1774, where he was rewarded with a pension. He never returned to his native country. He wrote and published a history of Massachusetts from the first settlement until 1750. The official residence of the governor of Massachusetts was called the "Province House." It was a large brick building, three stories in height, and was formerly decorated with the King's arms, richly gilded. A cupola surmounted the roof. In front of the house was a lawn, with an iron fence, and on each side of the gate was a large oak-tree. The ground sloped, and in front were about twenty stone steps. The King's arms are in possession of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Hutchinson died in Brompton, near London, June 3, 1780.

Hutchinson took a seat in Governor Bernard's council, January, 1767, where he had no right. The Massachusetts Assembly resented this usurpation, this "lust of power," in intruding into an elective body to which he had not been chosen. The council, by unanimous vote, denied the pretensions of the intruder, for the language of the charter was too clear to admit of a doubt; yet Bernard urged the interposition of the British government to keep him there. This conduct of the crown officers greatly irritated the people.

When, in May, 1770, he called a meeting of the Assembly at Cambridge, that body insisted that, by the terms of the charter, the general court could only be held at Boston. A dispute arose that consumed much of the time of two sessions, and it was October before the Assembly would agree to proceed with needed business, and then under protest, after a day spent in solemn humiliation and prayer. Then they made a bitter complaint against the governor because he had withdrawn from the castle in Boston Harbor

THE PROVINCE HOUSE.

the company in the pay of the province and given the fortress up to the regulars. They also complained of the unusual number of ships-of-war in Boston Harbor; all

of which they charged to misrepresentations at court by Governor Bernard, as well as the incumbent. They appointed Dr. Franklin as agent of the province in England. And then began that series of contests between Hutchinson and the people which speedily caused his exile from his native land.

Early in 1773, letters written by Governor Hutchinson and others of the crown officers in Massachusetts to Mr. Whately, one of the under-secretaries of the government, were put into the hands of Dr. Franklin, agent for Massachusetts, by Dr. Hugh Williamson, of Philadelphia. In these letters the popular leaders were vilified, the liberal clauses of the colonial charter were condemned, the punishment of Bostonians by restraints upon their commercial privileges was recommended, and "an abridgment of what are called English privileges" in America, by coercive measures, was strongly urged. Franklin saw in these letters evidences of a conspiracy against his country by enemies in its bosom, and he sent them to Thomas Cushing, speaker of the Massachusetts Assembly. They were finally published, and created intense excitement throughout the colonies. The tempest of indignation which they raised was fearful to Hutchinson and his friends. When a committee waited upon him for an explicit answer as to the authenticity of his own letters, he replied, "They are mine, but were quite confidential." This was not satisfactory, and the Assembly adopted a petition to the King for his removal. The writers of the letters were Thomas Hutchinson, Andrew Oliver (lieutenant-governor), Charles Paxton, Thomas Moffatt, Robert Auchmuty, Nathaniel Rogers, and George Rome. See FRANKLIN, BENJAMIN.

So eager was the King to see Governor Hutchinson, of Massachusetts, on his arrival in England in July, 1774, that he was hurried by Lord Dartmouth to the presence of his Majesty without time to change his clothes. He gave the King much comfort. He assured him that the Port Bill was a wise and effective method for bringing the Boston people into submission; that it had occasioned extreme alarm; that no colony would comply with their request for a general suspension of commerce; and that Rhode Island had accompanied its refusal with a sneer at the selfishness of the Bostonians. The King had heard and believed that the Boston clergy preached toleration for all kinds of immoralities for the sake of liberty, and scores of other tales, which Hutchinson did not deny; and for two hours the conversation went on, until the King was satisfied that Boston would be unsupported in its rebellious attitude by the other colonies. "The author of this intelligence," says Bancroft, "became at once a favorite, was offered the rank of a baronet, and was consulted as an oracle by Gibbon, the historian, and other politicians at court."

Boston Tea Party.—In his history of Massachusetts Bay, Governor Hutchinson gives the following account of the destruction of tea in Boston Harbor:

The Assembly being prorogued, there was again room to hope for a few months of freedom from civil contention. The complaint against the governor was gone to England; the salaries of the judges were suspended for the consideration of the next session: these were the two subjects of controversy peculiar to Massachusetts colony. Not more than two or three months had passed before a new subject was brought on, which had its effect on all the colonies, but greater in Massachusetts than in any other.

When the affairs of the East India Company were under the consideration of Parliament, to facilitate the consumption of tea, a vast quantity whereof then lay in the warehouses, it was determined to export a part of it, on account of the company, to the colonies, there to be sold by factors at a much lower price than it could be afforded by particular merchants who purchased it in England. When the intelligence first came to Boston, it caused no alarm. The 3*d.* duty had been paid the last two years without any stir, and some of the great friends to liberty had been importers of tea. The body of the people were pleased with the prospect of drinking tea at less expense than ever. The only apparent discontent was among the importers of tea, as well those who had been legal importers from England, as others who had illegally imported from Holland; and the complaint was against the East India Company for monopolizing

a branch of commerce which had been beneficial to a great number of particular merchants. And the first suggestion of a design in the ministry to enlarge the revenue, and to habituate the colonies to parliamentary taxes, was made from England; and opposition to the measure was recommended, with an intimation that it was expected that the tea would not be suffered to be landed. The committees of correspondence in the several colonies soon availed themselves of so favorable an opportunity for promoting their great purpose. It soon appeared to be their general determination that, at all events, the tea should be sent back to England in the ships which brought it. The first motions were at Philadelphia, where, at a meeting of the people, every man who should be concerned in unlading, receiving, or vending the tea was pronounced an enemy to his country. This was one of the eight resolves passed at the meeting.

The example was soon followed at Boston. The people were summoned, by notifications posted in different quarters, to meet at the tree of liberty, to hear the resignation of the consignees of the tea, which was then daily expected. The consignees also, by a letter left at one of their houses, were required to attend at the same time at their peril. The people met, but, the consignees not appearing, a committee was appointed to acquaint them at one of their warehouses where they had met that, as they had neglected to attend, the people thought themselves warranted to consider them as their enemies. They treated the message with contempt, and the people, many of whom had followed the committee, forced open the doors of the warehouse, and attempted to enter a room in which the consignees, with some of their friends, were shut up; but, meeting with resistance, they soon after dispersed, and the body of the people who remained at the tree, upon the return of their committee, dispersed also. This seems to have been intended only as an intimation to the consignees of what they had to expect. Two days after, what was called a "legal" meeting of the inhabitants was held in Faneuil Hall. Here the resolves which had been passed by the people of Philadelphia were first adopted; and then a further resolve passed that the inhabitants of the town, by all means in their power, will prevent the sale of the teas exported by the East India Company, and that they justly expect no merchant will, on any pretence whatever, import any tea liable to the duty. Committees were also appointed to wait on the several persons to whom the teas were consigned, and in the name of the town to request them, from a regard to their characters, and to the peace and good order of the town, immediately to resign their trust. Each of the consignees gave an answer of the same import, that, as they were not yet acquainted with the terms upon which the teas were consigned to them, they were not able to give a definite answer to the request of the town. The answers were all voted to be daringly affrontive to the town, and the meeting was immediately after dissolved.

Three vessels were expected every hour with the teas. The consignees were afraid of exposing themselves and their bondsmen to damages, which might arise from a refusal or neglect to execute their trust; on the other hand, they were anxiously concerned for their personal safety, and made their application to the governor. He foresaw that this would prove a more difficult affair than any which had preceded it since he had been in the chair. The controversies with the council and house had a tendency to deprive him of the esteem and favor of the people; but he had not been apprehensive of injury to his person. He was now to encounter with bodies of the people collected together, and a great proportion of them the lowest part of the people, from whom, when there is no power to restrain them, acts of violence are to be expected. He knew that the council would give him no aid. A man of the most influence among them had said to him that he was of opinion, instead of any attempts to suppress the motions of the people, it was more advisable to recommend to the consignees to reship the tea to England. He had no expectations of being able to protect the persons of the consignees or the property under their care. He considered that, if the ships came into the harbor above the castle, they could not pass by it again without a permit under

his hand, and that his granting such permit would be more than he should be able to justify. He therefore advised to their anchoring without the castle, and their waiting for orders; and this advice was approved of by the consignees, and by the owner of the ship first expected, if not by the owners of the other ships; and orders were given to the pilots accordingly.

All design of riots and acts of violence had been disclaimed by the conductors of measures for preventing the tea from being landed. A great number of rioters assembled, notwithstanding, before the house of Mr. Clarke, one of the consignees, in the evening, and attempted to force their way in, broke the windows to pieces, and otherwise damaged it, so as to cause the occupiers to remove out of it. One of the consignees fired with ball upon the mob, from one of the windows, soon after which the rioters dispersed.

The next day a town-meeting was held in Boston, for the sole purpose of inquiring of the consignees whether they were prepared to give a definite answer to the request of the town. They informed the town that they had received advice from their friends in England of such engagements in their behalf, merely of a commercial nature, as to put it out of their power to comply with the request of the town. Immediately upon receiving this answer the meeting dissolved itself. This sudden dissolution struck more terror into the consignees than the most minatory resolves. The same evening, by the advice of some of their friends, they resolved to petition the governor and council to take under the protection of government the property of the East India Company, which they were willing to resign, in order to its being landed and secured, until further direction from the owners. This measure was charged to the governor, who knew nothing of it until he came to town from his house in the country, the next morning, to attend a council summoned upon the general state of the province; nor had he any expectation of success from it.

The governor laid before the council the distracted state of the province from the measures of the inhabitants of Boston, who were in possession of the powers of government, and required advice and assistance, in order to the recovery of them. He acquainted them with the attack upon the house of one of the consignees, their dread of further violence upon the arrival of the tea, which was expected every hour; that he had called upon the civil magistrates, and had directed a military company of the inhabitants to hold themselves in readiness to obey their orders, in suppressing all riotous assemblies of the people; but all had been to no purpose. One of the council observed that the last riot was not of the most enormous kind; that in Sir Robert Walpole's time mobs had been frequent in England. Government there was then forced to give up the excise, and Sir Robert had promised never to bring it on again; the people would not bear the cider act; and the disorders among the people here were caused by unconstitutional acts of Parliament. Another observed that sending the tea by the East India Company to America was the plan of the ministry, in order to raise a revenue; that he dreaded the consequences, and was of opinion that the only way to prevent them was by the consignees resigning their trust.

While this debate was going on, the consignees delivered their petition to the secretary, some parts whereof, after it had been read, they were called in to explain; and having signified that they were in danger of violence to their persons, and that they feared the destruction of the tea, if there should be any attempt to land it, they prayed for protection to both, promising to wait for further directions from the East India Company, and in the mean time to take no steps towards the sale of the tea without permission from the governor and council. When they had withdrawn, the gentleman who had proposed their resigning explained himself, not intending a resignation into the hands of the governor and council; and exception was taken to their having any concern with the tea, lest they should make themselves liable to answer for any damage which might happen to it. But, some of the council desiring an adjournment, the matter was continued from Friday until Tuesday following, and, there being then but a bare quorum present, it was moved

that the governor should make a further adjournment, to which he consented; and, the selectmen of Boston having been first sent for, it was recommended to them to use their endeavors to preserve the peace of the town, and they expressed their opinions that, while the affair was under the consideration of the governor and council, the people would remain quiet.

Several members appeared upon this adjournment, who had not been present before. Mr. Bowdoin acquainted the governor that he had reduced his thoughts to writing, which he begged leave to read, and to lay the paper on the table. To this the governor excepted as irregular, and as it would make an ill precedent. After much debate, and after the council had, in general, discovered a disinclination to any other act or advice than a formal call upon the peace officers to be vigilant, which had been often done, and as often met with contempt, a motion was made that, as the opinion of the council was evident, a committee might be appointed to reduce it to a proper form. There was no room to doubt that the design was to prepare something for the public rather than for the sake of propriety in the council records, and the governor doubted whether he ought to consent; but, finding his instructions countenanced such a proceeding, he suffered the appointment of a committee, which withdrew into the lobby, where they had not remained long enough to write a paper of one-half the length of their report before they returned with it in form. There was no room to doubt of its being the paper intended to be read by Mr. Bowdoin, with such preface or other addition as was proper for the report of a committee. Upon hearing it read, the governor immediately warned them of the consequences of it; that it would be highly resented in England, and would be urged there to show the necessity of a change in their constitution. He pointed out one very exceptionable part, which struck many of them so forcibly that they wished the governor would give them more time for consideration, to which desire he readily acceded, and ordered an adjournment from Saturday to Monday following.

On Sunday one of the ships with the tea arrived, and anchored below the castle Notification in a form* proper to inflame the people was posted up, calling upon them to assemble; and while the governor and council were sitting on the Monday in the council chamber, and known to be consulting upon means for preserving the peace of the town, several thousands, inhabitants of Boston and other towns, were assembled in a public meeting-house at a small distance, in direct opposition and defiance. The council, when they had considered the exception which the governor had made, ordered a recommitment of the report; but it was returned without any material alteration, all advice to secure the tea upon its being landed being expressly refused, because such advice would be a measure for procuring payment of the duty. Three or four of the council in the debate appeared to disapprove of the report, but, when the question was put, it passed unanimously; and the last and senior councillor, though he had argued very strongly against it, gave his voice for it, adding that it would not do for him to be alone. The council advised the governor's calling upon the magistrates to meet, and to take necessary care for the preservation of the peace; which advice being complied with, the people, in a few hours after, passed a vote, which they caused to be printed, declaring that "the conduct of Governor Hutchinson, in requiring the justices of peace in the town to meet and use their endeavors to suppress routs, riots, &c., carried a designed reflection upon the people there met together and was solely calculated to serve the views of administration." The council, declining any further advice, were dismissed; the people continued together, in possession of all the power of government, for any purpose they thought fit.

The consignees of the tea, when they

* "Friends! brethren! countrymen!—That worst of plagues, the detested tea, shipped for this port by the East India Company, is now arrived in this harbor—the hour of destruction of manly opposition to the machinations of tyranny stare you in the face. Every friend to his country, to himself, and posterity, is now called upon to meet at Faneuil Hall, at nine o'clock *this day*, at which time the bells will ring, to make an united and successful resistance to this last, worst, and most destructive measure of administration."

saw no prospects of protection from government, made proposals to Mr. Adams, and others, a standing committee of the town, for securing the tea, and forbearing to make sale of any part of it, until they could receive directions from their principals; but no proposals were hearkened to. And, as soon as the master of the ship which brought the tea came on shore, he was sent for by this committee; and, after examination, both the master and owner were required, at their peril, to cause the ship to be brought up to town, and to a particular wharf, where it had not been customary for ships from London to unlade. The consignees of the tea, judging themselves no longer in a place of safety, withdrew to the castle.

The people assembled in Boston took the name of "the body" instead of a "legal town-meeting," and began with that spirit with which all established powers ought to act in the exercise of their legal constitutional authority. They resolved that, "at all events," the tea arrived in charge of Captain Hall should be returned to the place from whence it came, and that no duty should be paid upon it. They then adjourned to the afternoon, to give time for the consignees to deliberate. As soon as they reassembled, they resolved that the tea should be sent back in the same bottom in which it came. To this resolve the owner of the vessel, who was present in the meeting, said he must enter a protest. It was thereupon resolved that Mr. Rotch, the owner, be directed not to enter the tea, and Captain Hall, the master, not to suffer any of it to be landed, at their peril. They did not stop at mere declaratory acts or naked resolves. This, they knew, would render future acts and resolves contemptible. They established a watch of twenty-five inhabitants for securing the ship and cargo, and appointed a captain for the night.

It being intimated that the consignees, if they had time, would make their proposals to the body, "out of great tenderness to them, and from a strong desire to bring this matter to a conclusion, notwithstanding the time they had hitherto expended on them, to no purpose," the meeting was prevailed with to adjourn to the next morning.

The governor, seeing the powers of government thus taken out of the hands of the legally established authority, could not justify a total silence, though he knew he could say nothing which would check the usurpers. He sent the sheriff with a proclamation, to be read in the meeting, bearing testimony against it as an unlawful assembly, and requiring the moderator and the people present forthwith to separate at their peril. The sheriff desired leave to read the directions he had received from the governor, which was granted; but the reading of the proclamation was opposed, until Mr. Adams signified his acquiescence. Being read, a general hiss followed, and then a question whether they would surcease all further proceedings, as the governor required, which was determined in the negative, *nemine contradicente*.

The consignees, in a letter to the selectmen of Boston, which was read to the meeting, signified that it was utterly out of their power to send the tea back to England, but they would engage to keep it in a store until they could receive further directions from England, to which they afterwards added that they would be content to have it under the constant inspection of a committee, to be appointed by the town. But all was declared not in the least degree satisfactory, and that nothing short of sending back the tea would be so. The owner and master of the ship were directed to attend the "body"; and a vote passed, while they were present, without a negative, "that it is the firm resolution of the body that the owner shall return the tea in the same vessel in which it came, and that they now require it of him." The owner promised to comply, but intimated that it was by compulsion, and that he should be obliged to protest, to save himself from damage. The master also promised to carry it back. The factors for the two other vessels expected were sent for, and, being informed of the engagements made by the owner and master of the ship arrived, they also made such engagements as were satisfactory; and, after making provision for the continuance of a watch, so long as the tea continued in the harbor, and for an alarm to the inhabitants upon any molestation, they passed a resolve "that if any person, or persons,

shall hereafter import tea from Great Britain, or if any master, or masters, of any vessel, or vessels, in Great Britain, shall take the same on board to be imported to this place, until the unrighteous act (*mentioned in the preamble to the resolve*) shall be repealed, he, or they, shall be deemed, by this body, an enemy to his country; and we will prevent the landing and sale of the same, and the payment of any duty thereon, and will effect the return thereof to the place from whence it shall come." Copies of this resolve were ordered to be sent to England and to the seaport towns in the province.

A resolve passed to carry the votes and resolves into execution at the risk of their lives and properties; and the meeting was dissolved.

A more determined spirit was conspicuous in this body than in any of the former assemblies of the people. It was composed of the lowest as well, and probably in as great proportion, as of the superior ranks and orders, and all had an equal voice. No eccentric or irregular motions, however, were suffered to take place. All seemed to have been the plan of but few, it may be of a single person. The "form" of a town-meeting was assumed, the selectmen of Boston, town clerk, &c., taking their usual places; but, the inhabitants of any other towns being admitted, it could not assume the name of a "legal" meeting of any town.

Immediately after the dissolution of this body the committees of correspondence of the towns of Boston, Roxbury, Dorchester, Brookline, and Cambridge united, and held their meetings daily, or by short adjournments, in Faneuil Hall, or one of the rooms belonging to it, and gave such directions as they thought proper. Two of the other vessels with tea arriving from London, they were ordered by this new body to the same wharf where the first ship lay, under pretence of the conveniency of having the whole under one guard. It soon after appeared that a further conveniency accompanied it.*

As a permit or pass was always required at the castle, for all vessels except small coasters, and there were several men-of-war in the harbor, which it was supposed would stop the ship from proceeding any other way, the destruction of the tea was considered as necessary to prevent payment of the duty. A demand was made from the collector, in form, of a clearance for the ship, which he could not grant until the goods which were imported, and regularly entered, were landed, and the duties paid, or secured; and the like demand of a permit was made of the naval officer, with whom blank permits were intrusted by the governor, to be filled up, and delivered to such vessels only as had been cleared at the custom-house, and, therefore, in this case was refused. It was expected that in twenty days after the arrival of the tea a demand of the duty would be made by the collector, and the ship or goods be seized; which would occasion additional difficulties. Another meeting of the body was, therefore, called, in order to inquire the reason of the delay in sending the ship back to England. The people came into Boston from the adjacent towns within 20 miles, from some, more, from others, less, as they were affected; and, as soon as they were assembled, enjoined the owner of the ship, at his peril, to demand of the collector

* Two days after the dissolution of the body the following publication was posted in different parts of the town, and printed in the newspapers. It might be the act of a single person unknown, but in such a time it carried terror with it, which probably was the principal design of it: "Whereas it has been reported that a permit will be given, by the custom-house, for landing the tea now on board a vessel lying in this harbor, commanded by Captain Hall: This is to remind the public that it was solemnly voted, by the body of the people of this and the neighboring towns, assembled at the Old South Meeting-house, on Tuesday, the 30th of November, that the said tea never should be landed in this province, or pay one farthing of duty. And, as the aiding, or assisting, in procuring, or granting, any such permit for landing the said tea, or any other tea so circumstanced, or in offering any permit, when obtained, to the master or commander of the said ship, or any other ship in the same situation, must betray 'an inhuman thirst for blood,' and will also, in a great measure, accelerate confusion and civil war, this is to assure such public enemies of this country that they will be considered and treated as wretches unworthy to live, and will be made the first victims of our resentment.

"THE PEOPLE."

of the customs a clearance for the ship, and appointed ten of their number a committee to accompany him; and adjourned for two days to receive the report. Being reassembled and informed by the owner that a clearance was refused, he was then enjoined immediately to apply to the governor for a pass by the castle. He made an apology to the governor for coming upon such an errand, having been compelled to it; and received an answer that no pass ever had been, or lawfully could be, given to any vessel which had not first been cleared at the custom-house, and that, upon his producing a clearance, such pass would immediately be given by the naval officer. The governor inquired of him whether he did not apprehend his ship in danger from the people, and offered him a letter to Admiral Montagu, desiring him to afford all necessary protection. He said he had been advised to remove his vessel under the stern of the admiral's ship, but, among other reasons for not doing it, mentioned his fears of the rage of the people; that his concern was not for his ship, which he did not believe was in danger, but he could not tell what would be the fate of the tea on board. He declined taking any letter to the admiral, and returned to the people. The governor was unable to judge what would be the next step. The secretary had informed him that a principal leader of the people had declared, in the hearing of the deputy secretary, that, if the governor should refuse a pass, he would demand it himself, at the head of 150 men, &c.; and he was not without apprehensions of a further application. But he was relieved from his suspense, the same evening, by intelligence from town of the total destruction of the tea.

It was not expected that the governor would comply with the demand; and, before it was possible for the owner of the ship to return from the country with an answer, about fifty men had prepared themselves, and passed by the house where the people were assembled to the wharf where the vessels lay, being covered with blankets, and making the appearance of Indians. The body of the people remained until they had received the governor's answer; and then, after it had been observed to them that, everything else in their power having been done, it now remained to proceed in the only way left, and that, the owner of the ship having behaved like a man of honor, no injury ought to be offered to his person or property, the meeting was declared to be dissolved, and the body of the people repaired to the wharf, and surrounded the immediate actors, as a guard and security, until they had finished their work. In two or three hours they hoisted out of the holds of the ships 342 chests of tea, and emptied them into the sea. The governor was unjustly censured by many people in the province, and much abused by the pamphlet and newspaper writers in England for refusing his pass, which, it was said, would have saved the property thus destroyed; but he would have been justly censured if he had granted it. He was bound, as all the King's governors were, by oath, faithfully to observe the acts of trade, and to do his endeavor that the statute of King William, which establishes a custom-house, and is particularly mentioned in the oath, be carried into execution. His granting a pass to a vessel which had not cleared at the custom-house would have been a direct violation of his oath, by making himself an accessory in the breach of those laws which he had sworn to observe. It was out of his power to have prevented this mischief without the most imminent hazard of much greater mischief. The tea could have been secured in the town in no other way than by landing marines from the men-of-war, or bringing to town the regiment which was at the castle, to remove the guards from the ships, and to take their places. This would have brought on a greater convulsion than there was any danger of in 1770, and it would not have been possible, when two regiments were forced out of town, for so small a body of troops to have kept possession of the place. Such a measure the governor had no reason to suppose would have been approved of in England. He was not sure of support from any one person in authority. The House of Representatives openly avowed principles which implied complete independency. The council, appointed by charter to be assisting to him, declared against any advice from which might be inferred

an acknowledgment of the authority of Parliament in imposing taxes.

The superior judges were intimidated from acting upon their own judgments by the censure of the House of Representatives, and by the threats of impeachment of all who shall receive their salaries under the authority of an act of Parliament, which had enabled the King to grant them.

There was not a justice of peace, sheriff, constable, or peace officer in the province who would venture to take cognizance of any breach of law, against the general bent of the people.

The military authority, which by charter was given to the governor, had been assumed by this body of the people, who appointed guards and officers, which appeared sometimes with fire-arms, though generally without them. And, when he required the colonel of the regiment of militia in the town to use the powers with which by law he was intrusted, he excused himself by urging the hazard to which he should be exposed and the inefficacy of any attempt.

Even the declarations of the governor against the unlawful invasions of the people upon the authority of government were charged against him as officious, unnecessary acts, and were made to serve to inflame the people and increase disorders. He considered the intimations given him of personal danger as part of the general plan for discouraging him from persevering in his duty; but, in some instances of a serious appearance, he could not take any measures for his security, without the charge of needless precaution, in order to bring an odium against the people, when they meant him no harm.

Notwithstanding the forlorn state he was in, he thought it necessary to keep up some show of authority, and caused a council to be summoned to meet at Boston the day after the destruction of the tea, and went to town himself to be present at it; but a quorum did not attend. The people had not fully recovered from the state of mind which they were in the preceding night. Great pains had been taken to persuade them that the obstructions they had met with, which finally brought on the loss of the tea, were owing to his influence; and, being urged to it by his friends, he left the town, and lodged that night at the castle, under pretence of a visit to his sons, who were confined there with the other consignees of the tea. Failing in an attempt for a council the next day at Milton, he met them, three days after, at Cambridge, where they were much divided in their opinion. One of them declared against any step whatever. The people, he said, had taken the powers of government into their hands—any attempt to restrain them would only enrage them, and render them more desperate; while another observed that, having done everything else in their power to prevent the tea from being landed, and all to no purpose, they had been driven to the necessity of destroying it, as a less evil than submission to the duty. So many of the actors and abettors were universally known that a proclamation, with a reward for discovery, would have been ridiculed. The attorney-general, therefore, was ordered to lay the matter before the grand jury, who, there was no room to expect, would ever find a bill for what they did not consider as an offence.

This was the boldest stroke which had yet been struck in America. The people in all parts of the province showed more or less concern at the expected consequences. They were, however, at a distance; something might intervene to divert them. Besides, the thing was done: there was no way of nullifying it. Their leaders feared no consequences. To engage the people in some desperate measure had long been their plan. They never discovered more concern than when the people were quiet upon the repeal of an act of Parliament, or upon concessions made, or assurances given; and never more satisfaction than when government had taken any new measures, or appeared to be inclined to them, tending, or which might be improved, to irritate and disturb the people. They had nothing to fear for themselves. They had gone too far to recede. If the colonies were subject to the supreme authority and laws of Great Britain, their offences, long since, had been of the highest nature. Their all depended upon attaining to the object which first engaged them. There was no way of attaining to it but by involving the body of the people in the same circumstances

they were in themselves. And it is certain that ever after this time an opinion was easily instilled, and was continually increasing, that the body of the people had also gone too far to recede, and that an open and general revolt must be the consequence; and it was not long before actual preparations were visibly making for it in most parts of the province.

Hutchinsonian Controversy, THE. The Massachusetts theocracy, actuated by the spirit of the English persecuting bishops and of the Court of High Commission, persecuted relentlessly, as heretics and schismatics, the persons who occupied towards them the position which they had held towards their own persecutors. With the influx of new-comers from England, new opinions flowed into Massachusetts from the seething caldron of disputations in the mother-country. Among the new-comers was ANNE HUTCHINSON (*q. v.*), who was independent in thought and bold in the expression of opinion—a religious enthusiast, whose care of a numerous family did not prevent her taking a prominent part in the Church, and, at meetings of the women, which she instituted, freely discussing religious doctrines and criticising sermons. She maintained the leading tenet of the Reformation (justification by faith alone), involuntary faith, and the free grace of God. She declared that it was this faith, and not the repetition of acts of devotion or acts of morality, that made the true religious person. This doctrine of justification by faith was accepted by the theocracy as sound orthodoxy, but, as Mrs. Hutchinson put it, it struck a vital blow at the constitution of the Church in Massachusetts, for it mercilessly smote the self-esteem and influence of the leaders. Their "sanctification," this smart woman alleged, in which they prided themselves—their sanctimonious carriage and austere lives—furnished no evidence whatever of their "justification"—their change of heart and acceptance with God. The only evidence of justification, she said, was an internal evidence and consciousness on the part of believers that the Holy Ghost dwelt within them. The clergy were embarrassed, for they preached justification by faith and the internal and supernatural assurance of election to salvation, but they also held that such assurances were false and deceptive unless accompanied by outward evidence of sanctity in life and conversation. Hence their austerity.

While the Boston churches, under the influence of Mrs. Hutchinson, inclined to embrace her doctrines, ex-Governor Winthrop and most of the clergy throughout the colony denounced her as antinomian, and the pretended personal union with the Holy Ghost as no better than blasphemy. The governor and Cotton and Wheelwright supported her views, while most of the magistrates, ex-Governor Winthrop, and the clergy of the colony were her stern and active opponents. They were cautious, however, how they condemned their favorite doctrine of faith and free grace; but they zealously upheld the necessity of a system of worship and austere self-denial which they had crossed the Atlantic to establish. Mrs. Hutchinson irritated them by classifying the two parties—her friends as "under the covenant of grace," and her opponents "under the covenant of works"; and because Mr. Wheelwright made the distinction in a sermon, he was arraigned for sedition, and found guilty. The governor and a few others offered a protest, but the general court refused to receive it. Disputes ran high, and the whole colony was ablaze with excitement. Men of opposite opinions sometimes came to blows; families were divided, and society was fearfully rent. In the midst of the turmoil, Winthrop was elected (1637) governor, and the orthodox party claimed a triumph. The Hutchinsonians were beaten, but not subdued. The theological questions raised by Mrs. Hutchinson were referred to a synod—a conference of delegates from all the churches. That body pronounced the women's meeting in Boston "disorderly;" for the feminine church members, though "heirs of salvation," had no power in the earthly theocracy. They condemned the Hutchinsonians as schismatics, and the general court proceeded to end the controversy by the wretched argument of force. Mrs. Hutchinson and Wheelwright, and several others, were sentenced to banishment. It being winter, the former was allowed to remain at Roxbury, vigilantly watched, until spring; and about sixty of her most

active adherents were disfranchised and deprived of their fire-arms.

Hypnotism, EDUCATIONAL USES OF. Dr. R. Osgood Mason, who has given much attention to experimental psychology, contributes the following article on this phase of hypnotism.

It can no longer be doubted by those who are conversant with the subject that hypnotism is a fact and has come to stay. Its phenomena are too abundant and too easily observed; it has already proved of too great utility; and too many well-known scientific men have pronounced in its favor and are busy working out its numerous problems, to admit of its experiencing any serious decline or permanent retrograde movement.

In its domains two immense fields of investigation are already open and are assiduously cultivated; one is the field of therapeutics—the amelioration and cure of diseased conditions; the other is the field of psychology—the relation which hypnotism bears to mental action and the clews which it gives to strange and important phenomena which have long been misunderstood or else altogether ignored. In both of these fields much good work has already been done, while much still remains to be accomplished. But a third field is beginning to be opened up—still broader, and one which may yet prove of greater interest and utility than either of the others; it is the educational field—the influence which may be exerted by hypnotism upon the development and improvement of mind. When one views the number of children brought into the world with imperfect mental organizations and vicious tendencies, and sees how little impression is made upon them by the ordinary and even the special processes of education, it is of interest to inquire if there are no other methods by which these deficiencies may in a measure be remedied and the vicious tendencies eradicated.

Enough is already known of hypnotism generally to warrant us in looking with confidence in that direction for efficient and practical help; and experiment has shown that our expectations are not likely to be disappointed. What are the facts and methods now ready for inspection?

Both of the important fields with which we are already acquainted, the therapeutic and psychic, present obvious analogies to the comparatively new one now under consideration. When hypnotism, under the name of animal magnetism, was brought to light 100 years ago, the main feature presented was its curative influence upon disease; and, while its curious psychological phenomena were studiously noted, the main object of those who so energetically, and in the face of ignorant and discourteous opposition, pursued its study during the first half-century was to find the best methods of making it practically useful as a therapeutic agent. All these early experimenters produced the hypnotic condition by means of passes and manipulations, and had no doubt but that some influence or virtue passed from the operator to the subject, by which he was put to sleep and by which also curative effects were produced.

Half a century later, midway in the history of the subject, Braid began to produce hypnotic effects by other means than those used by the early mesmerists, and to throw doubt upon the theory of a magnetic influence; and, while he introduced a new name, new procedures, and, to a greater extent, the psychic element, he did not increase the practical curative effects which had hitherto been the main object of those who devoted themselves to the study and practice of the new art. Under the influence of Liébeault, Charcot, and Bernheim, the psychic element was still further recognized and emphasized, and suggestion was made the prominent feature in treatment; but it was still the therapeutic value of hypnotism which constituted the leading element and motive in its study, and it was in hospitals and the private practice of physicians that it was chiefly studied and made use of. So from its first appearance to the present time its therapeutic value has been recognized, and has constituted one of its leading features. Only second to this have been the psychic phenomena which have accompanied the hypnotic condition, and which have come to excite more and more interest, and to assume greater and greater importance.

Of these psychic phenomena, that which most nearly concerns our present purpose is the increased power of suggestion, as

shown by the facility with which the hypnotized subject may be influenced, and the wonderful effect, physical, mental, and moral, which suggestion properly applied in the hypnotic condition is able to produce.

As examples of the physical effects which it is possible to produce by suggestion, the following may be mentioned: The rate of the pulse may be increased or diminished; contraction or relaxation of certain muscles may be produced; paralysis of a specified limb may be caused, or it may be cured when it already exists; an ordinary postage-stamp applied to the skin may produce a blister; a piece of cold metal, as, for instance, a key, applied to the skin, may produce a raised figure of the same shape, red from congestion of the capillary vessels, or it may be made to appear as a blister; red or bleeding points upon the hands or feet or side may be produced, all by suggestion alone or a touch accompanied by suggestion. Such are some of the physical effects which may in some specially susceptible patients be produced by suggestion while in the hypnotic condition.

If such physical effects are possible, it may easily be believed that mental and moral effects may also be induced—and such is the fact. Here, then, we come directly upon the boundaries of our present subject, namely, the educational element in hypnotism; for, if mental and moral effects in the direction of improvement can be produced and made permanent, we have taken a long step in a true educational process.

To what extent has this been actually accomplished?

A very marked and, it must also be said, a most unusual case is reported in the *Annales Medico-Psychologiques*, and has been verified and summarized by Mr. F. W. H. Myers, secretary of the Society for Psychical Research.

Still further condensed, it is as follows: In the summer of 1884 there was at the Salpetrière a young woman of a deplorable type—a criminal lunatic, filthy in habits and violent in demeanor, and with a life-long history of impurity and theft. M. Auguste Voisin, one of the physicians of the hospital staff, undertook to hypnotize her at a time when she could be kept quiet only by the strait-jacket and the continuous cold douche to the head. She would not look at the operator, but raved and spat at him.

M. Voisin, however, kept his face close to hers and followed her eyes wherever she moved them. In ten minutes she was asleep, and in five minutes more she passed into the sleep-walking or somnambulic state and began to talk incoherently. This treatment being repeated on many successive days, she gradually became sane when in the hypnotic condition, though she still raved when awake.

At length she came to obey in her waking hours commands impressed upon her in her trance—trivial matters, such as to sweep her room—then suggestions involving marked changes in her behavior; finally in the hypnotic state she voluntarily expressed regret for her past life, and of her own accord made good resolutions for the future which she carried out when awake; and the improvement in her conduct and character was permanent. Two years later M. Voisin wrote that she was a nurse in a Paris hospital and that her conduct was irreproachable.

This is an unusual but by no means a unique case. M. Voisin has reported others equally striking; and M. Dufour, medical director of another asylum, has also found hynotism "able to render important service in the treatment of mental disease," and has adopted it as a regular and important factor in its cure.

I mention these cases not as being the most practical in character, but as showing the power for good of hypnotic treatment in some cases of a most unpromising class. The class to which I would especially call attention is the one embracing mental deficiencies, evil habits, and vicious tendencies, exhibited especially in childhood and youth. Under the head of mental deficiencies may be mentioned dulness of perception, imperfect power of attention, deficient memory, and general inaptitude for acquiring knowledge; under evil habits may be mentioned personal uncleanliness, biting the nails, idleness, cowardice, the tobacco, opium, or alcohol habit; and under vicious tendencies, lying, unconscious misrepresenta-

tion, kleptomania, needless cruelty, and moral perversity.

At the second international congress of experimental psychology, held in London in 1892, a paper was read by Dr. Bérillon, editor of the *Revue de l'Hypnotisme*, entitled *The Application of Hypnotic Suggestion to Education.* Under his observation hypnotism and suggestion had been successfully utilized in the treatment of more than 250 children with reference to the following diseases and tendencies: Nervous insomnia, night terror, somnambulism, kleptomania, stammering, inveterate idleness, uncleanliness, cowardice, biting the nails, and moral perversity. He stated further that facts relative to the successful treatment of these diseases by suggestion had been verified by a great number of observers and authors, and that such facts constituted the practical side of psychology. Suggestion made it possible to submit the development of the various intellectual faculties of the child to a careful analysis, and thus to facilitate the process of education.

A most important fact, and one which renders the use of suggestion of much wider application than has usually been thought possible, is that in order to accomplish the proposed object it is not necessary that the deep hypnotic sleep should be produced. Many persons consulting a physician for hypnotic treatment suppose it necessary that they should go into the deep trance and pass through all the wonderful stages and experiences which occasionally accompany this condition; associated with this supposition is also the idea that some miraculous change or therapeutic effect is to be suddenly produced; and, while it is true that such sudden and seemingly miraculous effects are sometimes produced, yet in the aggregate ten times more good is accomplished by the slower process of repeated suggestion upon cases in which the hypnotic condition is only partially secured, and in which neither absolute unconsciousness nor absolute anæsthesia accompanies the processes employed; and this is the use of hypnotic suggestion to which I would especially apply the term educational.

What part, then, does hypnotism bear in this matter, and how can its use be made an adjuvant to education?

In the study of the more unusual phenomena connected with mental action, some interesting facts have been discovered; and one of these facts is this: that the personality which we ordinarily see in activity, that which observes, talks, is intensely occupied about money, society, office, food, and general comfort, that personality by which we are usually known, may not, after all, be the only one which goes to make up the individual, but that another personality may sometimes make its appearance. Some persons, as, for instance, those known as somnambulists, while in a condition, apparently, of ordinary sleep, arise from their beds, walk, talk, play an instrument, write sermons and prepare arguments, then return to bed, sleep on as usual, awake at the proper time and know nothing of what has transpired during their somnambulism. These persons are utterly unconscious of what has transpired, nevertheless they often do things much better than when awake, and even things which they could not accomplish at all in their ordinary condition. Still further, although in their waking condition they are quite unconscious of what has transpired during their somnambulism, yet when a similar condition occurs upon a subsequent night, all the events which occurred on the former occasion are perfectly remembered and talked about, so that the several occasions upon which this somnambulic condition has occurred and the events which transpired in them are all linked together, forming one well-defined chain of memories and a personality perfectly distinct from the usual one.

When a somnambulist is put into the hypnotic condition and then talks, it is found that the speaker is that same personality which spoke and acted during the time of ordinary somnambulism, showing that the personality which acts during ordinary somnambulism and the personality brought into action by hypnotism are the same. This new personality has of late become a subject of great interest and persistent study. Not only does it come into activity in ordinary somnambulism and in the hypnotic condition, but also in dreams, in reverie, in abstraction, and sometimes, apparently, in a normal passive condition. This second person-

ality has been named the sub-conscious or subliminal self, and it possesses many curious faculties which we have not time to consider here; but, whatever this subliminal self may be, we have in hypnotism the means of experimentally reaching and influencing it; and this is where the great power of suggestion appears and is utilized.

Suppose, then, the physician has a patient in the deep hypnotic sleep; the patient hears nothing, perhaps feels nothing. The physician then says to him: "When you awake you will take the book which lies on the table, open it at the forty-third page and read four lines at the top of the page." He is then awakened. He has heard nothing; but his subliminal self, which has been made accessible by hypnotism, has heard and influences him to carry out the suggestion. He goes to the table and takes up the book, finds the forty-third page and he reads the four lines at the top of the page; he has no thought but that he is doing it all of his own accord; and so he is—he is obeying the impulse of his own subliminal self.

Suppose the patient to be a boy with the cigarette habit, and the physician had suggested as follows: "When you awake you will no longer desire to smoke. On the contrary, the very thought of it will be disagreeable to you, and you will avoid it altogether." He awakes, he knows nothing of what has transpired, but he finds he has no longer the desire to smoke, and consequently he ceases the practice.

Suppose, on the contrary this had been the suggestion: "You know your parents are greatly troubled and anxious about your smoking; you are too young; it will be harmful to you. When you awake, this idea will be constantly before you, and it will so influence your action that in compliance with the wishes of your parents, and because you will be convinced of its harmful effects, you will at once leave off the habit." And so he does.

But perhaps only one in ten of those applying for treatment are good hypnotic subjects and can be influenced in this comparatively easy manner. What of the other nine—can they have no assistance? On the contrary, nearly every one of them can be brought into the hypnotic condition to a greater or less degree—usually into a condition of reverie or light sleep, in which the usual self is passive and the subliminal self may be more or less perfectly reached and influenced. These are the more difficult cases—less striking and less satisfactory to both patient and physician; nevertheless, they are cases in which perseverance can accomplish a great deal, and is almost sure of achieving success.

Putting the patient into the best hypnotic condition possible, the suggestions are quietly and earnestly made and repeated; he is then aroused; he has been quieted and peculiarly rested; he thinks he has heard what has been said to him, but very likely he is unable to repeat it. The treatment is repeated at short intervals for a few days or weeks, and all concerned are gratified to find the desired result secured. It is in this manner, by frequent repetition, that the educational effect of hypnotic suggestion is obtained, whether in the deep sleep or light hypnotic condition. An imperfect memory to be stimulated, a kleptomaniac to be restrained, or a case of habitual lying to be influenced, and a mental force and moral sentiment induced, these are matters requiring tact, labor, and patience; but much can be accomplished.

An intellectual perception, and a moral sentiment, are at length established where precept and punishment under ordinary conditions had proved of no avail.

Numerous examples could be cited, not only of these moral deformities and deficiencies remedied, but also in the line of ordinary education, where there was absolute inability to concentrate the mind upon the given task, or where every idea regarding it vanished, leaving the mind a blank, the moment the pupil stood up in the class-room, or where memory entirely failed to retain the acquired lesson; or, still again, where even in adults the ability to spell correctly or use grammatical language was wanting; and where a few hypnotic treatments by suggestion have given the power to concentrate the mind upon study—to retain and express clearly what was learned—and where, by the same means, a good degree of facility

in spelling and the correct use of language has been acquired.

Such is a mere hint of the possibilities connected with the use of hypnotic suggestion as an element in education. My own experience in many interesting cases, as well as the recorded observations of others, has led me to believe that these possibilities have yet only begun to be appreciated or their value and wide range of application suspected, and that the next half century will see newer, truer, more harmonious as well as more scientific views regarding hypnotism itself among those who make it a study; that the prejudice on the part of the public, which is now a bar to its usefulness, will disappear; and that new uses, therapeutic, psychic, and educational, will be discovered, which will place it among the most highly prized agents for good in use among intelligent well-wishers of humanity.